

LANGUAGE LEARNING

A Journal of Applied Linguistics

Volume V, Numbers 1 and 2

1953-54

CONTENTS

Patterning in Children's Language Learning.	1
Werner F. Leopold	
Student Motivation and Interest in Elementary Language Courses. 15	
Robert L. Politzer	
Teaching English Reading in Puerto Rico	22
Belen Machuca	
In-Service Training for Locally-Appointed Teachers in the Binational Center Program	29
Kenneth Croft	
Listening Booth or Drill Room?	40
Ernest F. Haden	
A Film Strip for Pattern Drill	43
Patricia O'Connor	
Materials and Tests in English as a Foreign Language: A Survey. 48	
Robert Lado	
Slang and Taboos	56
Jack Lamberts	
Simple Question with <u>Be</u> for Pampango Speakers.	61
Maria Quizon Santos	

DEPARTMENTS

Reviews:

Gretton, German by Yourself (Gaylord Todd).	64
Lado, Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English (Lawrence B. Kiddle).	66
Cochran, Modern Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (Yao Shen)	70
Tharp (ed.), Annotated Bibliographies of Modern Language Methodology (R. Lado).	75
A Word About Our Contributors	78
Publications Received	80

805
L322

LANGUAGE LEARNING
A Journal of Applied Linguistics

EDITORIAL ADVISERS

Charles C. Fries University of Michigan
Kenneth L. Pike University of Michigan
 Summer Institute of Linguistics
Robert Lado University of Michigan
Aileen Traver Kitchin Teachers College
 Columbia University

Volume V, Numbers 1 and 2

1953-54

STAFF

Bryce Van Syoc and Robert Parslow Co-Editors
Mary Jane Masloob Business Manager
Yao Shen Reviews
Ernest McCarus Advertising

Edward Anthony, James Downer, Gerald Dykstra, David Firestone, George Luther, Robert Maston, Lois McIntosh, Herbert Meikle, Roy Strozzi, Beatrice Sutherland, Gaylord Todd, Helen Wong, Howard Van Roy. Staff

Richard Andrade, Ann Anthony, Vincent Carrubba, Al Davis, Harry Josselson, Joseph Kavetsky, Everett Kleinjans, Jack Lamberts, Mary Lee McDonald, Charles Michalski, Jean Praninskas, David Reed, Betty Wallace Robinett, Lloyd Swift. Associates

AN IMPORTANT NOTICE TO OUR READERS:

We wish to remind everyone that **LANGUAGE LEARNING** is no longer necessarily published on the basis of calendar quarters. This journal is at present an "occasional publication" in that its date of appearance depends upon the receipt of sufficient material for an issue and upon the amount of time staff members can devote to its editing. We will continue to try to produce one volume of four numbers each year. Please note, however, that subscriptions to **LANGUAGE LEARNING** are honored as volume rather than annual subscriptions: that is, two dollars will bring the subscriber one complete volume of this journal, whether or not that volume represents the product of a given year.

R.P.

Copyright 1954
by
Research Club in Language Learning

PATTERNING IN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING

WERNER F. LEOPOLD
Northwestern University

The problem of how children learn to speak has always engaged the marginal attention of linguists.¹ Too often their references to it have been casual and, on closer inspection, erroneous. The obvious requirement that reliable data must be collected before conclusions are drawn has too often been neglected. But well-known names of linguists appear among the contributors of special studies, for instance Jacob Grimm, Schleicher, Grammont, Marcel Cohen, Jespersen, Gutzmann, Meringer, Antoine Grégoire, Passy, Debrunner, as well as names of famous non-linguists like Taine, John Dewey, Wundt, Buffon, Darwin, Stanley Hall, Romanes.² But psychologists and educators have devoted more serious attention to child language than linguists have generally done.

The crushing bulk of data amassed in thousands of studies from many lands and many fields of scholarship³ threatened to overwhelm the student who tried to discover great lines of development in child language. It looked as if every child went its own way in mastering the language of its environment. One scholar after another tried to establish a generally valid sequence in the acquisition of sounds, for example. But no two lists agreed sufficiently to show a consistent line of development. There were those who were ready to give up and who

¹This article is a revised and extended version of a paper presented at the meeting of the Linguistic Society of America in New York on December 30, 1951.

²For bibliographical data see my *Bibliography of child language*, Evanston, Illinois, Northwestern University Press, 1952. Otto Jespersen's book, *Language*, London-New York [1922] (reprint 1949), is the only introduction to linguistics which accords major consideration to child language. Some of the best studies of child language have been published by students and teachers of languages, e.g., Egger, a classical philologist in France; Humphreys, a professor of Greek at Vanderbilt University; Deville in France; and Gheorgov in Bulgaria.

³Authors from many fields have written about child language: philosophers, anthropologists, biologists, students of medicine, law, astronomy, etc.; cf. the index in the *Bibliography of child language*.

WERNER F. LEOPOLD

declared that each child has its own language and its own sequence of learning, and that no principles of general validity can be found. Cross sections of group observations, often based on the speech of thousands of children of a certain age, did their share in reducing the weight of the less common features and in establishing averages.⁴ But even in the results of such studies, the variations within each category remained large, and furthermore, the diachronic aspects of gradual growth were brought out less clearly than in individual biographic studies.

The scholar who cut the Gordian knot was Roman Jakobson, now of Harvard University, in his study of child language, aphasia, and general sound laws (1941). The study is written in German and was published in a place where it is not easily accessible.⁵ It is not so well known as it should be. It has opened a new era in child language research and at the same time fixed the position of child linguistics within the competence of general linguistics.

The decisive progress is due to the application of phonemic analysis. As one of the originators of the phonemic method in the Linguistic Circle of Prague, Jakobson was eminently qualified to apply its principles to child language. Even though his postulates need correction in details, the application of structural views to child language was nothing less than revolutionary.⁶

As in many epochmaking inventions and innovations, the fundamental change in the approach was really quite simple.

⁴Best recent summary: Dorothea McCarthy, "Language development in children," in: Leonard Carmichael, Manual of child psychology, New York-London [1946], pp. 476-581.

⁵Roman Jakobson, Kindersprache, Aphasie und allgemeine Lautgesetze, Uppsala 1941 (Språkvetenskapliga Sällskapet i Uppsala Förhandlingar 1940-42). An earlier version in French is appended to the French edition of N. S. Troubetzkoy, Principes de phonologie, Paris 1949.

⁶I give Jakobson full credit for the new approach, although, as always happens with new inventions and discoveries, he had predecessors. For instance, the Viennese medical speech therapist, Emil Froeschels, now also in the United States, established as early as 1925 the reverse parallelism between structural growth in child language and structural decay in aphasia, one of the leading ideas of Jakobson's study. Jakobson however went much more deeply into the building-up process of child language.

PATTERNING IN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING

Instead of trying to find the sequence in which children learn sounds, which has proved futile, the attention must be focused on the sequence in the acquisition of sound categories. To establish the categories, a knowledge of phonetics was of course necessary, and many eager students of child language lacked it. Some based their accounts of sound learning on initial letters of words in standard spelling; the "c's" of English "cat," "cellar" and "church" made strange bedfellows. But even the majority with better phonetic sense, phoneticians included, did not detach their attention from individual sounds. Their lists for the sequence of sound acquisition showed a frustrating lack of agreement. Individual differences obstructed the search for a common denominator.

As soon as we think in terms of sound categories instead of individual sounds, the blurred outlines gain shape. We find that the speed and time of sound acquisition varies enormously between different children; but the sequence in categories and the relative chronology are always and everywhere the same, at least in great outlines. So Jakobson claims (p. 32f), and I believe he is right.

It is not difficult to see *a priori* that this must be so. It is safe to assume that the small child's perceptive faculties develop gradually. When the child's attention turns to language, it will first distinguish in what it hears only the coarser contrasts, and will need time to appreciate the finer sub-contrasts between the sounds which reach its ear. The same applies to the efforts to reproduce the sounds in its own articulation. As the small child must learn control of the muscles in arms, hands, legs, and body, so it needs to learn the much more delicate control of the muscles in the tongue and the other organs needed for speech. Naturally this is a long drawn-out process, and the child learns the coarser, approximate movements sooner than the fine intermediate adjustments.

In the field of vowels this means that the child learns to distinguish, passively and actively, low vowels from high vowels first, then the mid vowels, and eventually the breakdown of these three major levels into still more refined subdivisions. It also means that a twofold distinction between front and back vowels is made sooner than a threefold distinction between front, back, and central vowels. Complicated vowels like Ger-

WERNER F. LEOPOLD

man and French [y] and [ø], which combine tongue and lip position for front and back vowels, come still later. That is the reason for many substitutions. If a child, for instance, replaces [ʌ] regularly by [a], the reason is that the central retracted vowel is not yet in its phonemic system, but [a] is. We know that some languages get along with but three vowels, [i], [u] and [a]. Those engaged in speech therapy or re-education would do well to start with this coarsest vowel contrast.

This should however not be taken to mean that children's earliest vowel systems consist necessarily of the lowest vowel and the two highest vowels. In the case which I studied,⁷ the vowels of the first few weeks (which I call the crying stage) were all low and favored front articulation. The brief cooing phase of the second month was characterized by a co-existence of low front and center vowels ([a, æ, e : ʌ, ə]) and high back [u] and [ʊ]; higher front vowels were missing. The high back vowels together with all kinds of back consonants have given the cooing phase its name. The back consonants of this phase are what observers have in mind when they state that infants begin with all kinds of sounds not used by their environment.

This phase should be, but usually is not, sharply separated from the following long babbling stage, the stage of speech exercises consisting of more varied sounds without meaning. In this stage the high back vowels and the central vowels disappear. All sounds were more fronted and articulated much more distinctly. I found an opposition of low and high front vowels in the ninth month. Three front levels ([e] had been added) existed by the eleventh month. Thus, three levels of front vowels were used before the opposition front--back came into play. Of

⁷Instead of making too many generalized statements, for which the time is not ripe, I base this paper largely on the data assembled in my study of two children's language learning, *Speech development of a bilingual child*, 4 vols., Evanston, Illinois, 1939-1949 (Northwestern University Studies), henceforth referred to as *Bil. Ch.* The bilingualism involved is English and German. The volumes deal primarily with my older daughter, but give data about my second daughter as well. I spoke only German to the children. In this paper, as in *Bil. Ch.*, the emphasis is on the formative stage of the first two years. I apologize for the generalization implied in the title of this article. It takes a tentative step in the direction of generalization, but it is understood that future studies are likely to lead to modifications. Age indications like 1;2 mean at the age of 1 year and 2 months.

PATTERNING IN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING

course we cannot speak of phonemic contrasts in babbling, which is, by definition, speech exercise without meaning. Jakobson and others exclude babbling from their analyses. I find striking oppositions however, which might perhaps be characterized as a sort of experimental pre-patterning. The postulated phonemic contrast between fully open vowels and fully closed stops was also pre-patterned in babbling combinations like [baba, dididi], and so was the early structural syllable pattern, consonant--vowel, both of which were carried over without break or relearning into imitative speaking with meaning.

In the case I studied the speaking stage began in the last three months of the first year, overlapping with babbling, which continued for many months. The low vowels were carried over from babbling. The [æ] of crying and babbling, however, was now dropped. Standard [æ] was replaced by [a]. Standard central [ʌ] was also replaced by [a]. As late as the last month of the second year, the child's [da] stood for Jack and cover as well as for down, John, and German da and tragen. Homophony did not bother the child at all; [mar mar] was not an exclamation, but meant my money.

Thus phonemic contrasts became more clear-cut. The highest front vowel [i] was acquired in the tenth month in an imitated word, with the allophones [ɪ] and [y], the latter being used after the bilabial phoneme [b p]. In the first month of the second year, the high [i] was contrasted with low [a] and experimentally with high back [u], so that briefly the coarsest three-vowel system was realized. However, the [u] did not yet become established. Instead, two months later (1;2) the mid front [e] was learned in the new word baby, which had long remained passive in spite of its great interest value for the child. In this word a clear contrast between mid front and high front vowels existed.

Thus three series of front vowels were learned before the contrast front--back was tackled in earnest. High back [u] and [ʊ] were added lastly to the vowel system in the middle of the second year, that is, four and five months later (1;6-7). Both functioned as representatives of all standard high and mid back vowels. Mid back vowels were either raised to [u], or lowered to [a], and sometimes split into both contrasting vowels as

[au]--eloquent testimony to the fact that the mid back vowels did not yet exist as phonemes in the child's vowel system.

Mid back [ɔ] was quite common in unstressed syllables in the later months, because they receive less attention, which favors a vowel of indifferent formation. In fact, it seems likely that the striving for phonemic contrast is not characteristic of unstressed syllables, an aspect which Jakobson neglects. Still, since [ɔ] was in stressed position an allophone of the high back vowel, the same might be claimed for the unstressed vowel. The mid back vowel in stressed position was learned in the 23rd month. Three back levels were then distinguished, but [o] and [ɔ] remained allophones of one phoneme.

Central vowels in stressed position were not learned at all during the first two years; [ʌ] was represented by [a] as late as 2;4. Central [ə] (schwa) was learned in unstressed syllables during the second half of the second year, because its neutral character made it suitable in such a position; before that time unstressed syllables had been omitted. Even in unstressed position [ə] had to struggle for a place in the vowel system and did not become well rooted until the last month of the second year. The front--back range hardly achieved a three-unit distinction in the first two years.

I had recognized the contrast pattern in vowel learning before I read Jakobson's study. I am indebted to him for the application of the same principle to consonant learning. It is well known that children generally favor front consonants in their early imitative speaking. This has been variously explained by their accessibility to visual observation, by the greater mobility of lips and tongue tip, by the preceding practice in sucking and tactile exploration, and by their different acoustic qualities. Usually children reproduce bilabial stops early and correctly, and dental stops next, whereas velar stops are later and are frequently replaced by dental stops. There are however enough contrary examples where velars take the place of dentals, to show that the child is phonetically able to pronounce both. The reason for their intermingling is that the child's phonemic system has only reached the stage of two series, one labial and one non-labial. [t] and [k], [d] and [g] can, at an early stage, be allophones of one phoneme--actually all four can be one phoneme, because the contrast voiced--

PATTERNING IN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING

voiceless can also be late. In the case studied by me, [b] was used in the first word (0;9); [d] was used in words at 0;10, whereas [g] was not acquired until 1;7 and [k] at 1;8, after long experimentation. The separation of voiced and voiceless stops did not begin to be achieved until the very end of the second year.⁸ A clear distinction between three series of stops--labials, dentals, and velars--came after the end of the second year.⁹

The nasals showed the sway of the two-series system even more clearly. The bilabial [m] was learned at 1;2. It contrasted with the two buccal stops, [b] and [d], which up to that time had been the only consonants for four months. The second nasal to be imitated was the dental [n] of standard words. It was reproduced at 1;7-8, but took, in the child's version, the phonetic form of velar [ŋ] for three months. The velar continued to occur as an allophone after alveolar [n] had been learned in correct articulation. Velar [ŋ] never represented the [ŋ] of standard words, but was used only as a substitute for standard [n], [g] and [k]; standard [ŋ] was omitted by the child. Again the three-series stage came after the end of the second year.

Fricatives have an intermediate articulation comparable to the mid vowels. To produce a contrast with the open articulation of vowels, it is easier to make a complete closure with lips or tongue in stop position than to make the fine adjustment necessary for producing breath friction. That is why children often substitute stops for fricatives: [p] for [f], [t] for [s], etc. My older daughter did so only for the very late dental fricatives of English, in the fourth year; but the younger also used [t] for [s], "kisses" becoming [kitət]. The older daughter learned one fricative very early, at 1;1, namely the bilabial glide [w], which functioned as a substitute for the labiodental fricative [v]. Thus, as far as degrees of openness are concerned, the three series, vowels--fricatives--stops, existed as early as 1;2. Two months after, [j] was added, with an allophone [ɜ] another three months later, so that we have then two contrasting series of fricatives in initial position (if indeed the classification of [w] as a fricative is allowed).

⁸Cf. *Bil. Ch.* vol. 2, §414.

⁹Cf. *Bil. Ch.* vol. 2, §417.

WERNER F. LEOPOLD

In terminal position the situation was different. The ends of words received less attention, and the child did not strive for contrast. Just as mid vowels and schwa ([ə]) were favored in terminal unstressed syllables, the half-open fricatives were satisfactory as terminal consonants when these were no longer omitted, from 1;7. The single fricative [ʃ] was learned as a substitute for all apical fricatives at 1;7, three months earlier than [t] as a terminal stop. Thus, for example, [θ] and [ð] appeared initially as the stops [d] and [t] in "through" 1;11 and "this" 1;8-2;1, but terminally as [ʃ] in "mouth" 1;10. For four months, [ʃ] was the only terminal fricative. In the last month of the second year, the velar fricative [x] was used in agreement with the standard, in German words; as a phonetic unit (off-glide after back vowels) it had been used four months earlier. Thus we have then two series of fricatives initially and terminally, but not the same ones for the two positions. The third fricative, [f], developed very slowly from the middle of the third year, in either position.

Affricates occurred very early in cooing and babbling. But in imitated words they occurred for a long time only for standard stops and standard fricatives, faultily articulated. As imitative sounds they were first replaced by one of the two components. Only in the last third of the second year was standard [tʃ] imitated, in voiceless or voiced form. Being compromise sounds, affricates represent a sub-contrast which is naturally learned fairly late.

The so-called liquids are among the latest sounds of children. Not infrequently they are not yet mastered at school age. In the first two years of my older daughter, [r] and [l] were often rendered by the same substitutes; more commonly, initial [r] was [w], initial [l] was [j]. Terminally both became vowels, when they were not omitted altogether. The [l] was learned in the middle of the second year as a feeble phonemic unit; the [r] not until the fourth year. Both were used in approximately correct articulation very early in one or two isolated words. But linguists interested in children's language have learned to discount instances of premature phonetic perfection in isolated words, which are imitated by themselves without being fitted into the phonemic system of the stage. Such instances merely prove that the phonetic capacity of the child

PATTERNING IN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING

can be well ahead of the phonemic development. The child does not abstain from the use of certain sounds because it cannot hear or articulate them, but because they do not yet fit the phonemic stage.

I am convinced that Jakobson's phonemic analysis of sound learning is the way out of the difficulties presented by the puzzling individual differences between children. It is not yet in final shape. Velten, in a study of a slow sound learner,¹⁰ has used it and modified the analysis, which proved to be too rigid. I have suggested other corrections in my books. But the linguistic study of children's language learning will have to build henceforth on Jakobson.

In the field of vocabulary, there is much discussion in the literature about action words versus naming words, about emotional and volitional urges versus factual objectivity, and that sort of thing; but no agreement has been reached. The child names objects and actions and feelings, everything that is interesting for some reason. There is no doubt that wish components are stronger at first than later; but dispassionate statements also occur early. At any rate, every child makes a selection from the presented vocabulary with sovereign independence according to its needs and stage of maturity, and does not always agree with adults in judging the usefulness of lexical items.

In the learning of word meaning, however, it is possible to observe the coarseness of early semantic classifications and the gradual refinement of the semantic system in the direction prescribed by the environment. It is a tremendous task for the child to learn the adult ways of classifying the phenomena of the world, and it is fascinating to follow the development from dim unconventional clusters to categories sanctioned by the environment, by means of constant semantic extension and restriction. In some categories, like adjectives and adverbs, clear contrast patterns proceeding from simple to more complex can be observed. But these processes cannot be illustrated in a brief survey.¹¹

¹⁰H. V. Velten, "The growth of phonemic and lexical patterns in infant language." *Language* 19 (1943), pp. 281-292.

¹¹The process of semantic learning is studied in detail in *Bil. Ch.* vol 3, § 592-634.

WERNER F. LEOPOLD

In the field of grammar, syntax comes before morphology. The student of child language becomes very conscious of the fact that morphological devices are a luxury of fully developed languages. The small child gets along quite well without them, for a short or a long time.

Most children begin with sentences of one word.¹² Presumably their attention is captivated by a single word of the presentation, the semantic peak of a sentence, which in Germanic languages is also the phonetic peak through stress. The word may be a noun, an adjective, a verb of the adult sentence, but it serves for the child as the vehicle of a complete statement. This is where a great number of non-linguists have erred. They like to count the number and percentages of parts of speech in children's early vocabularies. But the child does not yet recognize the syntax of the standard language and makes its own statements in an unorganized, one-word form. The one-word period lasts a long time, in the case I observed, nearly a year, from the ninth to the twentieth month. Parts of speech mean nothing during this stage as far as the child's syntax is concerned. The only syntactic device used early in my case was the interrogative intonation; it was employed to ask for information or, much more commonly, to request a permission, rarely to ask for the name of a thing.

There is often a transition from the one-word phase to the two-word phase in the form of two one-word sentences following each other.¹³ The approach to the syntactic pattern subject--verb, for instance, was made by my daughter in the form Mama? sh! 1;6, which should be interpreted as "What is Mama doing? She is sleeping!" All that was needed to turn this question and answer into one complete sentence was to omit the interrogative intonation; this was done two months later. Thus the subject--verb pattern was learned at 1;8. Other two-word sentences consisted of verb plus object, one month later.

¹²The statement is based on an impression gained from the literature; it is not backed by statistics. We have too few linguistically expert studies of child language to generalize safely. Again I lean in the following on my own data for one child.

¹³Marcel Cohen, "Sur l'étude du langage enfantin," *Enfance* 5 (1952), pp. 181-249, is dubious about this transition. It is unmistakable in the case studied by me.

PATTERNING IN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING

Drinks milk meant "the cat is drinking milk," the subject being understood from the situation. There were even sentences containing both subject and object, but then the two-word span did not allow a verb to be expressed.

The interval between two-word sentences and three-to-four-word sentences was only three months. Many of these longer sentences were still grammatically incomplete, the extra word or words being used up for other purposes: two-word verbs of the type "wake up," adjectives or possessives, or adverbs. During the last month of the second year, the complete pattern subject--verb--object was learned. Some early examples still betrayed, by striking pauses, the effort needed to combine the two patterns subject--verb and verb--object into one; but almost immediately such statements were made fluently. Other utterances had been syntactically complete (complete in rough outlines, that is) before this time, because for the frequent imperative no subject is needed, and for intransitive verbs no object. I have disregarded early complete sentences like I see you 1;5, because they were learned by mechanical phonetic imitation as units. The use of such stereotype phrases has nothing to do with the child's learning to put words together in an original sentence.

My child was syntactically well equipped by the end of the second year. The length of sentences increased soon. All that remained to be learned was the addition of minor items like articles, copulas, prepositions, and of course the syntactical patterns of subordination, which belong to a much later stage.

Morphology is different. Practically no morphological devices (formal indications of declension and conjugation) were learned by my daughter during the first two years. Her speech type was isolating. Syntactic relationships were made clear by word order, which generally followed the standard. But there were enough sentences with unorthodox arrangement to show that not even this principle was fully acquired. Occasionally the word on which the interest was centered was placed first. This left room for misunderstandings, as when she said, commenting on the barking of a dog: Meow bites Wauwau, 1;11. She may have meant that a cat was biting a dog; but it is also possible that she used misleading word order. Imperfections of communication were an incentive to learn standard morphological features, which she did during the third year.

WERNER F. LEOPOLD

The neglect of endings, stem modifications, etc., is exactly in line with the postulated principle that the child learns in every area of language first a coarse pattern, which is later refined by the development of subcontrasts and formal distinctions. The intellectual task of recognizing and recreating the patterns and sub-patterns of adult sentences with their formal means of expression must of necessity begin with a picture in hazy outlines, which become clearer and clearer as experience and maturity grow.

My child operated functionally, in the second year, with what we would call singulars and plurals of nouns, with present, past, and future of verbs, etc., but managed to make herself understood without the use of formal signs. There were indeed forms of nouns based on standard plurals, and forms of verbs based on past tenses; but they were used for singular and present tense as well, and not contrasted with other forms of the same word. A few real plural endings appeared at the end of the second year, but they were not yet added consistently. The possessive ending was attached only to the names Mama and Papa, and not regularly so. The verb appeared invariably in the unmodified pure stem form, for the third person singular as well as for past, future, etc.: the verb was in the single-item phase. During the third year the more important morphological forms were learned, with many mistakes along the way. Such mistakes are more interesting than correct forms, because they show the grasping of a pattern more clearly. The only auxiliary verb during the second year was don't, which she heard all too frequently. It was a real auxiliary when another verb was added, as she did readily. She even used it with German verbs: Don't spiel, 1;11, for "Don't play." There was no passive voice until much later, the passive being a dispensable stylistic luxury.

I have said very little about the bilingualism involved in the case which I studied. The contrast between two languages, English and German, was an added complication for the learning of this child. On the basis of the evidence it is to be counted among the finer distinctions which were learned late. In the initial stages the bilingual presentation merely meant a larger vocabulary to choose from. The child chose either the German or the English item at her own discretion, leaning at first

PATTERNING IN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING

more on German, later more and more decidedly on English, and welded one language instrument out of the two presentations. She did not mind hybrid phrases, substituting for instance the German adjective *nass* in the English idiom *all wet*: 1;10, and similarly *right da* 1;11. Very often the crude phonetic form of the child's words could equally well stand for the English or the German model, because the vocabulary of the two languages is closely related on the elementary level: English *book* and German *Buch* resulted in the same form as long as the terminal consonants remained unrepresented.

The single-item phase with respect to bilingualism lasted for years. The split into two contrasting languages, distinguished by the person addressed, first showed rudimentarily and vacillatingly toward the end of the second year. Consciousness of dealing with two languages began early in the third year. The active separation of the two languages did not start in earnest until the very end of the third year. Increasingly, from then on, the learning of English and German proceeded separately. Eventually English was greatly predominant. The case I studied is not one of near-perfect bilingualism like that studied by Ronjat.¹⁴

The most striking effect of bilingualism was a noticeable looseness of the link between the phonetic word and its meaning. The child never insisted on stereotype wording of stories, as monolingual children often do, and even made vocabulary substitutions freely in memorized rhymes and songs. The unity of phonetic word and meaning, which is postulated by some scholars, was definitely not a fact for this child, who heard the same thing constantly designated by two different phonetic forms. This separation of word and meaning may be considered beneficial, because it favors content over form, thinking over *verbiage*. It may also be appraised as a handicap, because it results in a less unified, less forceful view of the world. That is a matter of conviction.

¹⁴Jules Ronjat, *Le développement du langage observé chez un enfant bilingue*. Paris 1933 (French-German bilingualism). The only other book-length case study of child bilingualism previous to my own study is Mili-voïe Pavlovitch, *Le langage enfantin: acquisition du serbe et du français par un enfant serbe*. Paris 1920 (successive bilingualism).

WERNER F. LEOPOLD

At any rate, bilingualism is such a wide-spread phenomenon in the world of language that it deserves to be studied exactly by linguists. In children's language learning it can be observed in a nascent state, with the detail of a slow-motion picture and the speed of a fast-motion picture. The same advantage holds for all other linguistic phenomena, which show in child language as under a magnifying glass.

STUDENT MOTIVATION AND INTEREST IN ELEMENTARY LANGUAGE COURSES

ROBERT L. POLITZER
Harvard University

The theme of student interest and motivation in elementary language courses is a recurrent one in pedagogical discussion. The usual approach taken is a consideration of means by which student interest and motivation can be aroused; yet what seem to be needed are more reliable data as to what student motivation and interest actually are. It is toward this evaluation of actual motivating forces that this study intends to make a modest and admittedly imperfect contribution: essentially this is a report on the answers given by 455 first and second year French and Spanish students at Harvard, on questions dealing with their motivation and interests.

Some introduction to the general framework of instruction at Harvard may be useful for the understanding of the results of this inquiry. The regular French and Spanish courses at Harvard meet only three times per week. The general aim of the courses is acquisition of reading knowledge (there are also intensive oral courses for obviously highly motivated students. These are not considered in this report). Courses lettered A and C are those with admitted emphasis on reading. In courses B and D there is somewhat greater emphasis on speaking; A and B are first year courses, C and D are second year courses. The student attendance of the courses is composed almost exclusively of students who have not yet met the general university language requirement and who are presumably in those courses for the purpose of meeting this requirement. In addition it should be mentioned that the language requirement can be met by passing a proficiency test and that students meeting the requirement through the test are allowed to go on to third year work and literature courses, skipping part of the first two years. This may, in part, account for the extremely small interest in literature manifested by the students in this study; the better students - who as we shall see tend to be more motivated in terms of literature - do have the possibility of moving out of the elementary courses.

ROBERT L. POLITZER

Answers to the questions were compared according to the course attended with an additional comparison of the two groups of students achieving the highest (A) and lowest (D/E) grades.¹ The sample of 455 students was distributed among the various courses in the following way: French A - 128; French B - 21; French C - 143; French D - 20; Spanish A - 56; Spanish B - 28; Spanish C - 46; Spanish D - 13. Distribution of answers to the various questions will be presented in forms of percentages.

I. Type of reading material.

Which of the following types of reading material would you prefer: a) Classical masterpieces of the national literature, b) modern novels, c) current newspapers, d) material connected with your major field of interest (e.g. political science, history, economics, science).

Distribution of answers:

	a)	b)	c)	d)
French A	29%	37%	13%	21%
French B	9	50	4	37
French C	19	52	3	26
French D	25	45	5	25
Spanish A	15	56	20	9
Spanish B	22	44	26	8
Spanish C	18	49	12	21
Spanish D	28	36	22	14

The results show that within each group of students the modern novel was the favorite choice. This was true not only of French C, D, Spanish A, C and D where the students had actually read some contemporary novels, but also of the courses in which the students had not yet been exposed to a contemporary novel. All in all, 47% of the total gave contemporary novels as first choice. The masterpieces of classical literature did not rate high, being selected by only 19% - and interestingly enough the highest vote for classical literature (29%) came from French A, from students who, unlike those of

¹Students were not identified by names, but were asked to indicate their last term grades.

STUDENT MOTIVATION

French C for instance, had not yet met any classical literature whatsoever. Only 10% of the total indicated c) as their choice - with the heavier vote coming from Spanish - no doubt a reflexion of the more intimate, contemporary interest in Spanish America. Reading in their field of interest was the preference of 24% of the total. This means that all in all 34% (c and d) or about one third of the students indicated definitely non-literary material as their first choice. The general conclusion seems to be that the students are interested in modern material - within the literary readings, obviously the "contemporary" won out over the "classical."

A comparison of the students making a grade of A with the D and E group² shows very few important differences:

	a)	b)	c)	d)
A students	22%	49%	6%	23%
D/E students	9	48	18	25

While both groups show the same preference for contemporary novels, the main difference lies in the A students' greater interest in classical literature, as opposed to the D/E students' greater interest in current newspapers. Since current newspapers were utilized in most courses to only a very small degree (in some not at all), this greater interest may merely represent a "protest vote" or disapproval of the course.

II. Attitude toward greater emphasis on oral proficiency.

a) I would like it, b) I would like it but I am not prepared for it, c) I am not interested in oral proficiency, d) It would make the course too difficult, e) It would not help me to pass the language requirement.

Distribution of answers.

	a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
French A	24%	45%	23%	5%	3%
French B	46	54			
French C	41	43	8	6	2
French D	90	10			

² Ibid.

ROBERT L. POLITZER

	a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
Spanish A	33%	41%	12%	2%	12%
Spanish B	72	28			
Spanish C	38	44	11	7	
Spanish D	64	36			

The overall distribution showed that 44% of all students chose a) while 43% chose b); this means that actually 87% of all students endorsed greater emphasis on oral proficiency and only 13% had some reservations. The students who had elected the B and D courses were unanimous in their demand for oral work and even in the A and C courses, students were hesitant only because they felt that they were unprepared for oral work. The only significant endorsement of a straight reading as opposed to a speaking course came from the first year French course (about 1/5 opposing the speaking emphasis). The reason for this is, perhaps, that in French a pure reading approach - for the purpose of acquaintance with literary works, or reading of non-literary material in the original, seems in the mind of the students, at least, more justified.

There were also some interesting differences between students in the highest and lowest grade groups:

	a)	b)	c)	d)	e)
A students	53%	35%	5%	4%	3%
D/E students	28	50	15	4	3

Thus 88% of the A students were in favor of emphasis on oral proficiency while only 78% of the poor students fell into the same category, with a much higher proportion, of course, making the reservation of insufficient preparation.

III. Primary purpose of instruction.

The students were asked which, in their opinion, should be the primary purpose of instruction: a) acquisition of reading knowledge, b) ability to speak with some fluency on every day topics, c) acquaintance with some major literary works in the original, d) better understanding of French (Hispanic) culture.

STUDENT MOTIVATION

Distribution of answers.

	a)	b)	c)	d)
French A	64 %	31%	1%	4%
French B	39	61		
French C	48	43	4	5
French D	25	71		4
Spanish A	62	34		4
Spanish B	17	79		4
Spanish C	52	44	2	2
Spanish D		100		

The overall distribution showed that 53% accepted the reading aim, 39% voted for speaking, only 2% saw acquaintance with literary masterpieces as the primary goal and only 6% felt that the understanding of civilization was a primary goal. In the B and D courses the speaking knowledge polled, as could be expected, high majorities, but even in courses like French C (where the student had read *Sartré*, *Anatole France*, *Gide*, selections from the *Roland*, etc.) speaking knowledge scored 43% and acquaintance with literature or civilization totalled only 9% of the answers. There was also no significant difference according to grades achieved: of the A students, 38% endorsed speaking and a total of 6%, literature or culture as primary aim; among the D/E students, 46% and 4% were the comparable figures.

IV. Motivation of choice.

In the question of motivation, it was taken for granted that the majority of the students were studying the language as a required subject. The question asked concerned itself only with the reason why this particular language rather than any other was selected. The students were given the following reasons for having selected French or Spanish: a) no particular reason, b) language happened to be more easily available in the secondary school or college schedule, c) it is easier than any other, d) it is more likely to be of specific use, e) reason for choice was a particular interest in French (Hispanic) civilization or literature or people.

Of the above choices only d) and e) would, of course, indicate any sort of motivation in terms of the subject, while a)

ROBERT L. POLITZER

b), c) seem to amount to zero motivation in terms of the language itself.

Distribution of answers.

	a)	b)	c)	d)	e)	(d&e)
French A	19%	14%	3%	56%	8%	64%
French B	14	4		68	14	82
French C	13	25	2	49	11	60
French D	11	17		61	11	72
Spanish A	24	14	10	45	7	52
Spanish B	12			63	25	88
Spanish C	29	12	16	38	5	43
Spanish D		19	28	54	9	63

The tabulation indicates that the students in the B and D courses were generally more highly motivated. Generally, the motivation in Spanish seemed somewhat lower, apparently because a certain number of students had selected it only because of its reputed easiness. In the overall picture, 38% of the total, well over 1/3, selected a), b), c) and seemed thus to have little or no motivation in terms of choice. Only 10% declared that they had been motivated by a specific interest in civilization, culture, etc. 52% explained (or at least rationalized) their choice on utilitarian grounds - since usefulness was not further defined in the questionnaire, it was perhaps the easiest way of explaining one's own motives. The important conclusion, at any rate, seems to be that a majority of students do feel that they are likely to use the language in some practical sort of way.

The comparison of students by grade reveals important differences:

	(a,b,c)	d)	e)
A students	25%	53%	22%
D/E students	47	49	4

As might be expected, the lack of motivation is by far more pronounced among the weak students, and the A students do show a considerably higher motivation in terms of culture and literature, than the D/E group.

The following seem to be the main conclusions:

The primary interest and motivation of the "language re-

STUDENT MOTIVATION

quirement" student on the elementary and intermediate level lie in the acquisition of the skill of language itself, with a heavy emphasis on oral proficiency if not as primary goal, at least as a desirable by-product of the instruction. Their interest is in the living language as a useful medium of communication and in contemporary material. Civilization, culture and literature may be the primary interest of many of our language professors, but they are apparently not the primary interest of our elementary students. The lesson to be learned is simply that the source of interest and stimulation lies in the language itself rather than in the outside material³ and that outside material, in order to interest, must be by preference up-to-date and contemporary.

The conclusions presented here do not mean to imply that we should abandon the teaching of cultural or literary materials in our elementary or intermediate courses. There is no reason whatsoever, why our educational objectives should automatically adjust themselves to the motivations or likes or dislikes of our students, and the writer of this article himself has insisted that the educational objective of our lower level instruction must go beyond the acquisition of the mere skill.⁴ What I do want to emphasize, however, is that our educational objectives must be reached and can only be reached by utilizing the existing motivation and interests and not by opposing them. Those of us who believe in the teaching of literary or cultural material within our more elementary courses, must become more effective teachers of the skills, must first satisfy the students' eagerness for oral work and must effectively combine skill and culture.

³ This has been well put by Robert Lado, Language Learning; II (1949), p. 1, when he stated that "most students once they find themselves in a foreign language class room show initial interest in using the language rather than mastering the stories or extraneous stimuli."

⁴ R. L. Politzer, "Elementary language, skill or subject," Hispania, XXXIV (1951), 387-389.

TEACHING ENGLISH READING IN PUERTO RICO

BELEN MACHUCA

Department of Education
San Juan, Puerto Rico

Any discussion of reading instruction as a part of teaching a second language must consider what has been learned about the reading process in the native language of the student and examine it in the light of the linguistic principles which we accept as valid in the teaching and learning of a second language. In Puerto Rico we can do just this. We can test, reject, adopt, and revise as the application of techniques and procedures makes each of these processes necessary. This paper does not attempt to present clear-cut rules for procedure, but merely suggests techniques which may be useful in the teaching of reading in English. It represents a tentative examination of some of the ideas that we consider pertinent to the teaching of English reading to our students.

Reading and Language

Language is sound. It has been defined as a system of arbitrary symbols by means of which human beings react and interact. Writing is the graphic representation of those sound symbols. Reading is the reaction to this graphic representation in terms of recognition and understanding. This reaction, whether oral or silent, involves sounds, sounds that represent meanings. The abstractions involved in the reaction processes are made through language—through sound. Therefore, reading in a second language is a phase of learning that language, a phase which will naturally follow listening to and producing the basic features of the sound system of that language.

From the field of reading in the native language we borrow the information that the reading process involves two fundamental skills—recognizing the word and getting its meaning.¹ The early stages of reading are defined as those in

¹Silver Burdett Company, A Straight Talk to Teachers of Primary Reading (a pamphlet).

TEACHING ENGLISH READING IN PUERTO RICO

which the pupils give names to symbols, expect to get meanings, and actually get meanings.²

Reading in the native language is preceded by experiences with language which the children acquire throughout their childhood, at home and in other real life situations. Through imitation and repetition, stimulated by the need for communication, the learning of language goes on in a highly effective though unsystematic fashion. Reading in a second language should also be preceded by experiences in that second language.

Since the learner of a second language must usually get these experiences in school, he must have them systematically and effectively provided for him. In a situation like ours we must substitute realistic for real life situations. We must crowd the child's experiences of years into hours. Consequently, we must limit the selection of experiences with the second language to matters that are basic in that language. Accordingly, we systematize imitation and repetition by basing our oral English materials on an analysis of the basic patterns of sound and structure of English as it is used by native speakers of the language.

This oral approach should prepare the learner to grow in that "receptive" process of reaction to symbols which is reading. There are certain factors that condition this growth. The learner should receive constant, systematic instruction and well-guided practice in the techniques for recognition and comprehension of symbols, and the climate and circumstances of the learning process should be favorable to this guidance, for "teaching is the guidance of growth."

The Reading Process

What do our pupils, learners of English as a second language, have at the beginning of the process of learning to read in English? Supposedly they have:

1. A knowledge of the basic patterns of sound and structure of Puerto Rican Spanish.

²Nela Barton Smith, The Development of Basal Reading Techniques, reprint from A Report of the Fifth Annual Conference in Reading, Pittsburgh, 1949.

BELEN MACHUCA

2. A readiness for reading, with initiatory abilities in the mechanics, as to direction, eye movements, etc.
3. Ability to recognize printed symbols and react to them with Spanish sounds, from which reaction they get or expect to get meaning—limited by age, experience, degree of growth, physical development, linguistic level, etc.
4. Experiences with a limited number of the basic sounds and structural patterns of American English.
5. Very little knowledge of the cultural background in which American English is used for communication.

This is the equipment with which the pupil starts learning to read English. As teachers we need to understand certain factors and follow certain suggestions if we are to guide our learners in the different areas of growth that will affect their progress in English reading.

Three factors in the reading process need to be clearly understood:

1. Recognition of symbols in the early stages is a slow, complicated matter in one's native language—it is more complicated still in a second language. Yet, as reading is a receptive process, reading ability even in the very beginning will grow much faster than the power of expression.
2. The levels of growth and maturity that affect understanding vary with different children, as does linguistic ability; and both affect reading.
3. In the areas of interest, the desire to achieve reading skill is as strong as the interest in the content of the reading material.³ This fact can be thoroughly capitalized on in our situation in Puerto Rico. Our reading materials in English seem especially inadequate for our pupils for the following reasons:
 - a. The English readers have been prepared for children whose native language is English.
 - b. The experiences in the readers are for the most part alien to our pupils.

³Ibid., p. 48.

TEACHING ENGLISH READING IN PUERTO RICO

- c. The average student in Puerto Rico is over-age for his grade as compared with the average student in the United States.

Nevertheless, if properly motivated, pupils can be made to feel so sure of being able to read and understand that it will not matter to them what the reading material is. If we understand this, it will help us, when we redistribute the reading material, not to feel that it is too much below their age-interest level.

The following suggestions may help the reading process:

1. The English book reading program must necessarily be accompanied by systematized, well-conducted language instruction in which reading and writing practice exercises reinforce oral practice of the basis patterns of structure and sound. If a pupil is expected to read and understand English, he should constantly grow in the understanding and use of the language.
2. Reading instruction can proceed very slowly from the early kind of exercise which merely reinforces oral practice, to the stage at which the pupils can be expected to do a considerable amount of reading by themselves.
3. As the child develops, the clues to recognition of symbols should also change gradually from the use of gestures, pictures, labels, flash cards, experience charts, and oral reading to such helps as answering questions, trying to locate specific information, and analysing words.

Example: In the lower grades we often help recognition through the use of illustrations: repetition of a pattern of structure and sound, with different pictures.

1st picture (a boy running)

Caption: Juan is running.

2nd picture (another boy is running)

Caption: The boy is running.

3rd picture (a girl is running)

Caption: The girl is running.

In the later stages the pupils may be led to generalize from word endings, such as -ly, -less, etc., as clues to

BELEN MACHUCA

recognition of new meanings. They may be led to see how a structural pattern is a clue to understanding. If a pupil recognizes the word-order structure of adjective before noun in English, this grammatical meaning will help him get the total linguistic meaning out of the passage he is reading. He can also learn to understand larger units and combinations, skimming, skipping, and going ahead without being stumped by new words or structures.

4. Reading instruction should make continuous and systematized provision for practice in reading English, with an ultimate aim of establishing two patterns in reading:
 - a. Applied reading, utilitarian: reading to obtain information.
 - b. Free reading, leisurely and voluntary: reading for enjoyment.

Stages of Instruction in English Reading at Present in Puerto Rico

1. Introductory stage.

The main objectives in the beginning are recognizing symbols and getting meaning from them. The material at this stage grows out of oral practice. All the linguistic material has been produced by the pupils. Reading instruction begins with the introduction of a whole, which is then broken up into parts and later synthesized again to form the whole. This reading is largely oral, imitative, and teacher controlled. At this point pictures, blackboard material, flash cards, and cardboard strips are very useful. When the students handle books, look at pictures, read from the blackboard, match words and word groups against pictures and cards, recognition develops. Their cooperation in making illustrated experience charts may result in an accumulation of reading material equivalent to one or more pre-primers.

2. The next stage—book reading.

Our English reading texts in Puerto Rico are not the best readers for our situation—not even for a native language reading situation—for linguistic science has not influenced the

TEACHING ENGLISH READING IN PUERTO RICO

writing of most English readers as yet. But as they are the only readers available, we must try to use them to advantage. At present, with practically no readers on the market for learners of English as a second language, the possibility of preparing such materials seems remote and costly.

A study was made of the material in the pre-primers, the primers, and Book One of a standard series. The linguistic material found in the readers may be classified as:

- a) Material which the pupils have already produced orally. This includes both structures and vocabulary.
- b) Material which the pupils have not produced orally, but which will occur repeatedly throughout the readers.
- c) Material which is needed for just one selection but has no usefulness for further readings.

Material classified as (a) will cause no trouble and will probably be familiar to the pupils through experience cards and the like. Material classified as (b) should be introduced for recognition, as vividly as possible, on the basis of frequency. The material in (c) may be disregarded unless clarification of its meaning is absolutely indispensable to understanding.

Some useful clues to recognition at this point are pictures, use of illustrations in the text, gestures and mimicry, black-board reading, reading aloud by the teacher, questions, reading aloud of choice parts by groups, individual reading to answer questions, reading of known patterns, study of word families.

The objectives at this stage are recognition of symbols, getting meaning from symbols, and bringing meanings to symbols in terms of the readers' experiences.

The following are pre-requisites to all reading lessons at this level:

1. Clarification of concepts—explanations of unfamiliar items in the cultural background of the selection, new words and structures, and the like.
2. Motivation—relating to or contrasting with the pupils' experiences those of the selection; establishing a motive for a general reading of the selection as well as for the different parts.

BELEN MACHUCA

3. Establishing a definite situation for reading practice in which the reading objective predominates; that is, planning for a class period in which most of the pupils' time is employed in actual reading. It is this reading practice which will make them grow in reading ability.

With these factors and techniques kept firmly in mind, we feel that the child will ultimately achieve satisfactory reading ability in English.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING FOR LOCALLY-APPOINTED TEACHERS IN THE BINATIONAL CENTER PROGRAM¹

KENNETH CROFT

United States Information Agency

The majority of teachers in the binational center program are resident Americans and English-speaking nationals hired locally to conduct classes in English. The selection of teachers, a matter of local determination, is not under consideration here. Rather we shall be concerned with the reconciliation of various standards of teaching resulting from the employment of English teachers with greatly divergent training and experience in this field. A concerted effort has been made to develop and maintain a standardized academic program in each center by means of uniform teaching materials and in-service training for locally-appointed teachers.

Besides the objective of uniformity, in-service training has been adopted to insure that up-to-date teaching and linguistic procedures in common use in the United States are made known to locally-hired teachers and applied in their classroom activities.

The responsibility for in-service training usually rests with the director of courses (a Smith-Mundt grantee from the United States, who is responsible for the center's academic

¹For general descriptive material on the binational center as a medium of cultural exchange, see the following references: Dorothy E. Greene, "The Informal Diplomats," *The American Foreign Service Journal*, Vol. 23, No. 10, pp. 7-10; Dorothy Greene and Sherly Goodman Esman, "Cultural Centers in the Other American Republics," Department of State Publication 2503, no date; David Hellyer, "Around the Good Neighbor Network," *Rotarian*, February, 1951, p. 31 and ff.; Leonard Ross Klein, "Making Friends with Our Neighbors," *Pan American Union Bulletin*, Vol. 81, pp. 467-475, 1947; George P. McCallum, "The Role of the Binational Center," Reprint from IIA Newsletter No. 25 of June, 1953 (Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1953), 4 pp.; Edmund R. Murphy, "Cooperation with Cultural Centers in the Other American Republics," Reprint from Department of State Bulletin of October 26, 1947 (Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1948), 8 pp.; Second Semiannual Report on Educational Exchange Activities: Letter from Chairman, United States Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange (Washington: Govt. Print. Off., 1950), pp. 24-25.

KENNETH CROFT

program).² Through a variety of steps, members of the local teaching staff are encouraged and assisted in improving their role as teachers of English as a second language, and their activities are coordinated into a unified set of procedures.

Twenty-two Latin American binational centers have reported active in-service training programs.³ The principal activities comprising these programs are listed and discussed below.

Special Courses for Local Teachers

Several centers provide an indoctrination course for new teachers. A similar course for old as well as new teachers is sometimes instituted when the center's course system undergoes radical revision or when one set of teaching materials is replaced by a different set. These courses are usually apart from the regular or periodic staff meetings for local and grantee teachers.

Mexico⁴ has an "orientation course" for prospective members of the local staff which meets twice a week; attendance

²Under letters of award from the U. S. Information Agency, private American citizens from the United States form a nuclear staff of administrative and teaching personnel in 27 centers in Latin America, 2 in the Near East, and 2 in the Far East. In this study we refer to such personnel as grantees, as distinguished from locally-hired teachers.

³Although the data for this study are more than two years old, in-service training has continued in substantially all the binational centers along the general lines set forth here.

⁴Since the names of some of the binational centers are identical, we use the city names in referring to the various centers. The following centers are mentioned in this study: Asuncion (Centro Cultural Paraguayo-Americano); Bogota (Centro Colombo-Americano); Ciudad Trujillo (Instituto Cultural Dominico-Americano); Caracas (Centro Venezolano-Americano); Concepcion (Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura); Fortaleza (Instituto Brasil-Estados Unidos); Guatemala (Instituto Guatemalteco-Americano); Lima (Instituto Cultural Peruano-Norteamericano); Mexico (Instituto Mexicano-Norteamericano de Relaciones Culturales); Porto Alegre (Instituto Cultural Brasileiro-Norteamericano); Quito (Centro Ecuatoriano-Norteamericano); Rio (Instituto Brasil-Estados Unidos); San Jose (Centro Cultural Costarricense-Norteamericano); Sao Paulo (Uniao Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos); Salvador, Brazil (Associacao Cultural Brasil-Estados Unidos); Santiago (Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura); Tegucigalpa (Instituto Hondureno de Cultura Interamericana); Valparaiso (Instituto Chileno-Norteamericano de Cultura).

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

for one trimester and satisfactory performance in the course are required before the applicant for a teaching position can be employed. The course deals with the objectives of the center and their implementation, an examination of the course system, and an exposition of the teaching materials used at the center. A rigid schedule of visits to regular classes in progress is maintained for each trainee; and reports of observation are submitted following these visits, at which time questions concerning the teaching procedures observed can be raised and discussed.

At Santiago new teachers receive private and group orientation during the first week of the new semester. Meetings are held daily to discuss teaching methods in general and particularly to give instruction and practice in the use of phonetic symbols. Old teachers meet for three preliminary briefing sessions before the beginning of the new semester; any change in teaching procedures, schedules, etc., are brought up during these meetings. After the semester has been under way a short time, all teachers attend bi-weekly meetings devoted to teaching problems, demonstration and practice of teaching techniques, and correlating the academic program with the cultural and social programs.

Classes for local teachers in Porto Alegre meet once a week. The class meetings center around the following topics: "the advantages of phonemic transcriptions in language teaching, the phonemes of American English, rules for intonation and stress, lesson planning, formulating drills and exercises, and general classroom procedures."

At the beginning of the academic year a two-day meeting is held in San Jose for all local teachers. This serves as indoctrinating sessions for new teachers and as a refresher course for old teachers. The sessions run from 9 to 5 and are devoted to "the history of the center, administration, and policies; teaching materials used in the center; importance and preparation of lesson plans; grammar and exercises; records maintained by the center; audio-visual aids; reading for understanding and reading for enlargement of vocabulary; dictation as a class exercise; use of the library by teachers and students."

A course given in two sections is available to local teach-

KENNETH CROFT

ers at Lima. "The groups study conversational English lessons by means of the informant-drill technique; this provides the teachers who are not native speakers of American English with an opportunity to increase their proficiency in spoken English." In addition, techniques used in descriptive linguistics are presented and discussed; items for illustrating the technical discussions come from American English, Peruvian Spanish, French, and German. The teachers often present problems which have arisen in their classes for consideration by the group as a whole.

Fortaleza conducts weekly sessions of one hour for teachers of elementary courses. Consideration is given only to "the practical day to day classroom application of the principles being introduced at the center for the first time."

At Bogota a number of "special meetings and conferences on language-teaching techniques, course content, and pedagogical problems" are held throughout the year.

Staff Meetings

Centers not offering special courses for local teachers almost invariably devote part of each staff meeting to in-service training. Attendance is usually required for all the teachers.

The semi-monthly staff meetings at Concepcion may be characterized as follows:

1. The first step is to familiarize the teachers with the textbooks and other devices for teaching English on hand at the center.
2. The center has sought to instruct the teachers in the most efficient manner of using these materials under the conditions which exist there.
3. These meetings have been instrumental in effecting coordination of the teaching program in general and the different class levels in particular.
4. At each session a point is made of bringing up and explaining some pedagogical trick or device which through time and experience has been found to be helpful to the more experienced teachers.
5. At the first sessions open discussions are held concerning the relative merits of the different systems for teaching English. This helps to reinforce the favorable attitude on the part of local teachers toward the 'oral approach.'
6. Some of the meetings are devoted to discussions on general

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

classroom procedures with stress being laid on how to make a class interesting through a variety of activities. 7. After the first few weeks of instruction, special attention is given to the inadequacies or shortcomings of the textbooks in use. Suggestions are made for overcoming these difficulties and 'getting the most out of the books.' 8. The importance of using American English and speaking it in a normal rather than a special classroom manner receives emphasis in all sessions. 9. Administrative matters, such as teaching schedules, enrollment problems, and reassignment of students erroneously placed, are brought up at most of the sessions. 10. Toward the end of the trimester at least one session is given over to planning the make-up of examinations."

Teachers' meetings take place regularly at Asuncion on Saturday mornings, at which time the teachers are invited to bring up "problems in the presentation of material, the utilization of teaching aids on various attainment levels, and other topics pertaining to teaching psychology and techniques."

Valparaiso has adopted the practice of holding "weekly meetings for its faculty on Thursday afternoons. These meetings are held for the following purposes: a. To bring to the faculty's attention any timely notices. b. To give the teachers an opportunity to discuss teaching problems. c. To recommend any changes in section for students not properly placed. d. To instruct the faculty in the use of phonetics. e. To present language-teaching methodology."

At Tegucigalpa monthly teachers' meetings are called "to coordinate the progress of the various sections of each course, to discuss types of examinations, and to thresh out administrative problems."

A text with records furnished the students by Guatemala forms the basis of instruction for the center's four elementary courses. "A special teachers' manual has been prepared for use with the text, with lesson plans and suggested classroom procedures. Because it is necessary for each teacher to follow the plans closely, thus enabling the student to go on to the next course under a different teacher without encountering difficulties, teachers' meetings are held at the beginning of each term and several times during the term to clear up problems and to make sure that the system is being employed as

KENNETH CROFT

effectively as possible. Advanced courses are also kept in check in this manner."

Demonstration Classes

When large-scale changes in the academic program occur, some centers have found it expedient to conduct demonstration classes for the benefit of locally-employed teachers.

Instruction of the staff at Lima in "linguistic techniques and principles is supplemented continually with examples and discussions of the application of those principles to the local situation. The problems of the understanding and application of descriptive linguistic principles are overcome through 'demonstration' English classes conducted on the informant-drill technique."

At Asuncion "an experimental class has been launched, open to all students now pursuing the beginning course. The purpose of the course, taught by the American grantees, is to demonstrate new teaching techniques to the local teachers. At the end of each class, teachers are invited to raise questions and discuss the procedures. The experimental class is conducted entirely in English."

Attendance at Seminars for National Teachers of English

Twenty Latin-American binational centers conduct annual seminars for national teachers of English of the country or area. These are usually well attended by the centers' locally-hired teachers, especially by those who do not speak American English natively. The seminars vary in length between ten days and four weeks and ordinarily take place during the regular school vacation period. The seminar programs differ in content from center to center to meet the exigencies of the local situation; the seminar activities at the same center also vary considerably from year to year. However, seminar courses follow a fairly uniform generalized pattern: English improvement, teaching methodology, and American life and letters.

At Quito "the most valuable work in in-service training is accomplished at the summer course for teachers of English.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

All four of the locally-appointed national teachers attended the last course and received diplomas."

Locally-hired teachers at La Paz "attend the methodology course given during the special summer course for national teachers of English."

Sao Paulo encourages "all local teachers to participate actively in or attend special seminars for national teachers of English."

Teacher Supervision

At most centers the grantee teacher responsible for in-service training makes periodic visits to the classes conducted by local teachers with a view to evaluating their performance and, when necessary, to offer suggestions for the improvement of their techniques.

"Periodic visits to classrooms as teacher-critic, followed by personal conferences, help to eliminate faulty procedures." The assistant director at Sao Paulo "makes a conscientious effort to visit every teacher of every level at the center once or twice during the semester. The assistant director feels, however, that her most important contribution consists in being on hand and easily accessible so that teachers may come to her personally with any problems that arise. She does a great deal of interpreting of material and suggesting of procedures to teachers individually."

La Paz reports that "the classes of all teachers are audited from time to time by both the director and director of courses. These visits are unannounced. Later the auditor and teacher hold a critique on the class. General failings and errors noted during these visits are made subjects of discussion at the bi-weekly staff meeting."

At Mexico "each level of instruction, that is to say, each course with its numerous sections, has been assigned to either a grantee teacher or an experienced local teacher for supervising purposes. These 'supervisors' make out tests, visit classes and report to the director of courses, and otherwise assist and advise the teachers on points of procedure and technique. This plan has resulted in a better control of classroom work, better information for the director of courses, and

KENNETH CROFT

improved understanding by the local teachers of the basic methods and principles of the center's teaching program. It is further possible to discuss important observations made by the class visitors in the weekly teachers' meetings to the advantage, not only of the teacher visited, but of the entire group."

Outside Reading for Locally-Hired Teachers

Each center maintains a small collection of professional literature on language study and teaching in the United States for use in in-service training. Technical and popular literature on applied linguistics figures in the collection especially. Several new items are added each year; recent acquisitions include Outline of English Structure by Trager and Smith, Modern Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language by Cochran, Selected Articles from Language Learning, The Structure of English by Fries, Leave Your Language Alone by Hall, and Manual of American English Pronunciation for Adult Foreign Students by Prator.

The local teachers at Salvador (Brazil) are invited to make use of the English Teachers' Library. "This is a separate library of new linguistic, bibliographical, and pedagogical aids."

At Bogota "a special library shelf on modern English and linguistic methods has been called to the attention of the local teachers. The most important available materials are discussed at the periodic faculty meetings. Attention has also been called to the special teaching aids available for classroom use, namely filmstrips, tape recorder, and slide projector."

Sao Paulo "encourages the local teachers to keep abreast of developments in language teaching, linguistic science and cultural anthropology in the United States. This is made possible through the availability in the center of new books, journals, reprints and audio-visual materials connected with these fields. Work is being done constantly to include the use of audio-visual aids in the regular curriculum."

At Fortaleza "all suitable books on modern language instruction available in the 'non-cataloged, non-classified' li-

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

brary have been separated, listed, and placed in the director's office; the teachers have been invited to make use of this collection. However, demands upon their time preclude the possibility of their doing any extensive amount of study; the material most apropos must for the most part be 'pre-digested' for them."

"To offset the need for more careful attention to pronunciation and to emphasize the conversational approach to English, a shelf of books has been chosen and set aside for the exclusive use of the local teachers" at Asuncion. "Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (Ann Arbor, 1946) has been especially recommended as a handbook, and four copies of this book are kept on the teachers' shelf for convenient reference."

Other In-Service Training Activities

The classes conducted by the centers' "best" classroom teachers often serve as models, and scheduled observation of such classes by other teachers, especially new ones, forms a part of the in-service training in almost all centers. The visitor is usually required to submit a brief report on each class observed following a critique form especially prepared for class visits. The person in charge of in-service training then discusses the reports of class observation with the visitors individually or as a group.

"In-service training has been on an individual basis" at Ciudad Trujillo "to accommodate the local staff members' free time, as every one of them has a full-time job elsewhere. Lesson plans have been the most effective means of accomplishing this. An extensive lesson plan has been drawn up for each of the teachers, drawn from the experience of the grantee staff, the locally-appointed teachers, and the prior linguistic training of both. Of particular value has been the time saved in discarding 'mouldy' grammar rules still lingering in some of the texts. With uniform lesson plans progress under different teachers can be observed. Much emphasis is placed upon the initial oral presentation of the lesson, regular coverage of specified class material, and suggested aids to teaching. Plans are adapted to available texts. All classes are ex-

KENNETH CROFT

pected to be on a designated schedule. Uniform examinations are given as an aid in checking on the level of teaching in each class."

"At the beginning of each semester, every teacher" at Salvador (Brazil) "is given a lesson plan for the classes he will teach. This plan is thoroughly explained to the teacher. It outlines the subject matter to be covered during the semester and gives the approximate time to be spent on each part or lesson."

At Sao Paulo the teachers of elementary courses "are given a schedule of dates showing when each lesson should be completed, and they are required to follow it. This aids the teachers in covering material uniformly and provides ample time for review at the end of the semester."

Rio, Sao Paulo, and a few other centers issue "teachers' manuals" which contain written instructions for conducting each classroom activity within the framework of the over-all course system. These manuals are kept up to date by appendices and revised editions.

Problems in Conducting In-Service Training

Wherever possible, administrative measures have been adopted to reduce the turnover in local personnel and insure continuous service through good wages, pleasant working conditions, and the encouragement of local teachers to take an active part in the centers' various programs.

"During the past semester, for the first time in years, the center" at one location "was able to secure an adequate local teaching staff and attempt to train the teachers. Before then the center could not even approach the matter of in-service training; its most pressing problem was to get satisfactory teachers at all."

"With regard to the matter of in-service training, experience" at a certain center "has shown that effective means are expensive. Teachers have been paid during the year for attending teachers' clinics and meetings at the regular hourly wage for teaching. Without such incentive, attendance is poor and a planned course of instruction loses its effectiveness. Moreover, time and money put into the training of a teacher

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

are often lost, because the teacher may remain with the center for only three or four months." However, steps have been taken to maintain a firmer and better trained nucleus of dependable local teachers for the future.

The local teachers at Valparaiso "are all employed on a part-time basis, since they hold other positions outside the center. This condition makes it difficult to weld these individually capable teachers into a well-knit, cohesive group."

Caracas reports that "there is one rather serious obstacle which stands in the way of conducting an effective in-service training program. All the teachers of English currently employed, in addition to working at the center, hold regular full-time positions in Caracas. Since nine per week is the minimum number of hours taught by any of these teachers, their daily schedules are so full that it has proved quite impossible to hold meetings at an hour at which all are able to attend. In-service training, then, must be given to only two or three persons at a time."

At Bogota "relative stabilization of the staff has been achieved by cutting down the number of teachers and giving them a larger number of teaching hours. It has been found that this step has the advantages of facilitating supervision of teachers, avoiding mid-semester shifts in personnel, and greatly augmenting the interest and cooperation of the locally-hired teachers of the center."

Constant efforts are made at Sao Paulo and other centers "to make all local teachers feel that they are an integral part of the cultural program and to convince them that the ultimate success of the center depends, to a high degree, upon their efforts, not only as teachers in the academic program but as indispensable elements in the over-all cultural exchange program.

LISTENING BOOTH OR DRILL ROOM?

ERNEST F. HADEN
The University of Texas

The several departments of modern foreign languages at the University of Texas moved into their new building, Batts Hall, during the summer of 1952. This has made possible the refinement of some teaching techniques previously tried and the development of some newer ones. Learning to use to best advantage the new equipment has raised some problems which will be discussed in this paper with a view to sharing our experience with our colleagues.

In addition to the twenty-odd classrooms and seminars, there are in the building four drill rooms. Three of these seat twenty students each, and the fourth holds thirty persons. The drill rooms have seats without arms; they are therefore not usable as classrooms, but are specifically for purposes of oral drill. Each of these drill rooms and classrooms is equipped with a wide range loudspeaker. All the speakers are fed, on separate switches, from a central control room located on the ground floor. From here as many as four channels may be used simultaneously to send recorded materials, live voice or radio programs, to the system. Thus any drill room or classroom may receive one of four programs when the control room is operating at capacity.

Throughout several hours each day, Monday through Friday and, occasionally, on Saturday morning, the drill rooms receive drill materials previously recorded, designed for four courses at different levels. The students gather in the room corresponding to the course they are taking. They are free to check in and out, but they are urged to spend not less than half an hour daily in this essential preparation outside of class.

This equipment is the embodiment of our belief that the drill room offers certain advantages over the listening booth for elementary language instruction. In view of the fact that many institutions have set up laboratories with individual listening booths or the equipment, at considerable expense for players and recording equipment, some may feel that lacking the ready money for such a large outlay precludes all "labora-

LISTENING BOOTH OR DRILL ROOM?

tory" drill. It is hoped that our experience will encourage others with limited means to carry through plans for this help to their students' achievement.

It is generally recognized that in many kinds of activity, among them learning activities, individuals perform better in groups than alone. Specifically, in drilling on pronunciation and other language skills, shyness is one big obstacle. The performance in groups, in the great majority of cases, seems to help by submerging the individual in the group.

Since we consider that the work done in drill sessions must be correlated with the class work as closely as possible,¹ teachers make frequent visits to the drill rooms while they are in use. They gain in this way an accurate impression of their students' performance *sur le vif*, and in a relatively short time; a much shorter time, without significant loss of accuracy, than by listening to the students' recorded practice as is done with the listening booth set-up. They also have occasion to observe the effectiveness of the drill materials themselves.

If some flaw in the drill procedure has been noted, such as an unforeseen difficulty encountered by the students, some lack of clarity in the instructions, or whatever the cause, immediate remedial steps can be taken in the following manner. The teacher, at the next class meeting, may have the drill "piped" into his classroom and deal then and there with the problem.

Another very useful device for drill is available when students are gathered in groups: the pattern drill film strip. This is described and discussed in another part of this issue of *Language Learning*.²

The matter of expense is also worth noting. Before moving into Batts Hall, the first and second semester courses in French and Spanish made use of classrooms, during the late afternoon hours when they were unoccupied, with a player in each room. Thus one player for some twenty students represents a modest outlay, especially when compared with such equipment as is often found in the individual listening posts.³

¹cf. Bruce R. Gordon, *Integration of Laboratory and Classroom* MLJ 37.2 (February 1953) pp. 72-75.

²p. 43

³See Lawrence B. Kiddle, *The Laboratory of the Department of Romance Languages at Michigan*. *Language Learning* 2.4 (Oct.-Dec. 1949) pp. 121-7.

ERNEST F. HADEN

Because only one copy of the drill recording is needed by the whole group working on the same material, the cost of duplicating recordings is relatively low. It is true however that the scheduling of the use of drill space becomes a more difficult task.

The opportunity to hear his own performance is an invaluable experience for the student. To this end we record the students' speech periodically, at intervals which vary from a week to a month. This is done under test conditions. Two kinds of oral test have been found useful: a) a number of random questions is recorded with a pause after each. A small group of students (five or six usually) is admitted to the recording room at one time. They take turns answering the successive questions, before an open microphone. Thus the student's answer is recorded following the question which elicited it. The delay time is incorporated in the test recording and is a valuable index to the student's readiness and fluency. b) Sacrificing this last feature, one student at a time is shown a simple picture, (e.g., from the pattern drill film strip) and instructed to speak on the topic illustrated. The instructions may vary widely in complexity, and require one or many sentences. For greater accuracy in comparing one student's performance with that of another, the uncomplicated picture is preferable.

For advanced work, and as a part of the phonetics laboratory, individual booths are provided. Each of these is equipped with a disc player and a tape recorder. Both intensive practice with the model to be mastered, and other work involving careful transcription or analysis are made possible.

A FILM STRIP FOR PATTERN DRILL

PATRICIA O'CONNOR
The University of Texas

There is a certain stage in an introductory course in a foreign language which presents rather special problems. We do not want to use English to motivate the students' performance, and we cannot use the written language. We do not want to use English, because we feel that the process of translation is to be avoided as much as possible, in favor of the early establishment of habits of response to stimulus in the foreign language. We cannot use writing to present pronunciation drills to our students because they are, in this introductory period, in a pre-spelling stage. The teaching of spelling is postponed until we have attained our primary aim, that is, the mastery of the sound system of the language. The students are not allowed to see the spelling of their early exercises until they have had sufficient oral drill to establish correct habits of articulation. Mastery of the sound system takes practice, and practice means repetition. But mere repetition, enough of it to accomplish any lasting result, is not likely to hold the attention of the majority of our students, nor is it likely to give them the sense of making progress, which is essential to continued interest.

In our work this year with the beginning Spanish classes at the University of Texas, we have found that these special problems of the early weeks of the course can be met with considerable success through the use of a film strip for pattern drill.

This film strip consists of thirty-six frames, and illustrates twenty basic drills of the patterned substitution type. Stick figure drawings are used for the illustrations, which are purposely kept as simple as possible so as to focus the students' attention on the one state, or action, or relationship represented. Each frame of the film strip is divided into four sections. The following pattern drill,

La hermana está en su coche.

Luis está en su coche.

PATRICIA O'CONNOR

Luis está al lado del arroyo.
La casa está al lado del arroyo.
La casa está aquí.
El coche está aquí.
El coche está al lado de la casa.
Luis está al lado de la casa.

would be illustrated by two frames (Figures 1 and 2):

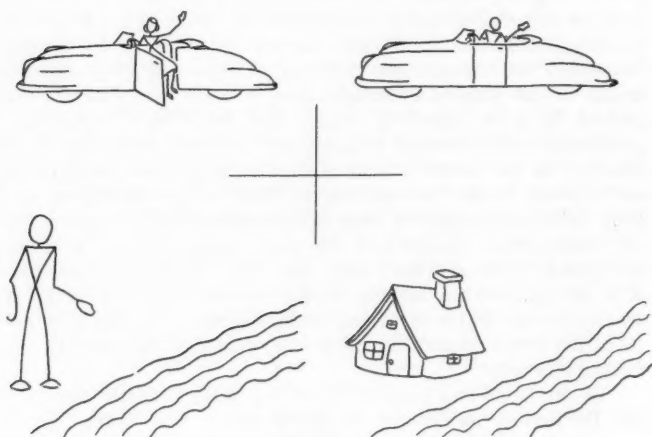


Figure 1

The text on which these exercises are based is a series of pronunciation drills.¹ These drills consist of a series of statements, each complete as to meaning, which are gradually built up to form several sentences of considerable length. Each of the three pronunciation units thus constructed was planned to embody a selected number of Spanish speech sounds. The pronunciation units are the following:

¹Ernest F. Haden, How to Pronounce Spanish, (to be published by Henry Holt and Company in 1953).

A FILM STRIP FOR PATTERN DRILL

La hermana mayor de Luis que es muy rica está aquí en su casa verde al lado del arroyo. Luis tiene un coche ancho, largo, y muy rápido de color carmesí.

Los cinco muchachos uruguayos eran alumnos de una escuela muy grande en Los Angeles. Un buen día decidieron volver a su propio país a causa del aire viciado de aquella ciudad. Aunque no querían hacerlo, lo hicieron.

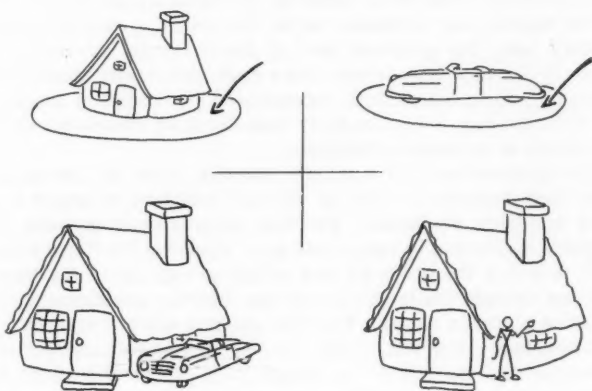


Figure 2

Aquel hombre tenía un hijo de once años. El hijo fué atendido por un gran médico que le curó de su enfermedad en seguida. El estaba casi sin fuerzas, pero fué durante aquel invierno cuando empezó a engordar.

Within the lexical and structural limits of these basic sentences there is ample material for substitution-type exercises. Such drills not only afford further opportunity for practice with the new articulation, but also, when presented with the illustrative film strip, give the elementary students the sense of "talking about something" from the earliest stages of their

PATRICIA O'CONNOR

contact with the language. As the complexity of the pattern drills demands, some forms not included in the unit sentences are introduced. These "new" forms (el hermano, la muchacha, la hija, plurals of nouns, etc.), present no problems, however, for the articulations involved have already been drilled, and the meaning is immediately apparent from the illustration. The fact that together with the sound system of Spanish, many basic structural patterns of the language are being drilled through these exercises is, at this point, incidental. We have found, however, that when, after an introductory period of four or five weeks, our students begin the use of a standard elementary text, the greatest part of the material presented in the early lessons has already been quite thoroughly mastered. Grammar, then, when first encountered by a student so prepared, is for him but an orderly statement of structural facts with which he is already familiar.

The pattern drill film strip is used in class for the teaching of new patterns as soon as the unit sentence on which it is based has been mastered. The film strip is used also for the students' recitation in class, and as a stimulus for "conversation" in which the students are urged to expand on the basic patterns already drilled or to ask one another questions on the series of pictures shown. The film strip is shown regularly in drill sessions. For use in the drill sessions, both the pattern sentences and the "cues" or substitution items are recorded with pauses to allow for the students' chorus response. The film strip has proven itself useful for testing, both oral and written. Before the students are allowed to see the spelling of the pronunciation units, they are given an oral test in which each records his "description" of a series of frames selected from the film strip. After spelling has been presented and drilled, the students are given a written test. For this test, together with dictation and the writing of answers to questions in Spanish, they write "compositions" on selected frames of the film strip, and are instructed to write "anything that is appropriate to the series of pictures shown."

While wall charts or posters could be used for the illustration of pattern drills, we find that film strips are less expensive to reproduce, easier to handle and to store, and generally better suited to our use in class and in the drill ses-

A FILM STRIP FOR PATTERN DRILL

sions. With as many as four sections of beginning Spanish meeting at the same hour, many copies of the illustrations are needed to supply both the class rooms and the drill rooms. After the illustrations have been drawn, multiple copies in film strip form can be made quickly and inexpensively. For showing the film strip we use Argus All-purpose projectors which are light and easily handled, and require small storage space.

MATERIALS AND TESTS IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A SURVEY

ROBERT LADO
University of Michigan

I. Materials

Introduction. Four main types of materials stand out in the mass of books, articles, and pamphlets dealing with English as a foreign language. First, the books of British teacher-scholars whose names are familiar to all of us. Second, those of Basic English. Third and perhaps most significant at present, the linguistic materials, especially those of Fries and his students. And fourth, the seemingly inevitable stream of adaptations, bound lesson plans, and so-called practical books thrown together without previous research of any kind.

Materials from the British school. The British school is represented by widely differing points of view of course, but some general characteristics can be observed in its works. Vocabulary control is its chief contribution and outstanding feature. Vocabulary control is so definite an element in the British school that in that respect Basic English may be said to be part and parcel of it. The work of Michael West, Harold Palmer, and Laurence Faucett is strongly characterized by vocabulary control.

Another fairly general feature of the British school is the use of I. P. A. (International Phonetic Association) symbols to represent British English "received" pronunciation. Daniel Jones' work on pronunciation¹ and Armstrong and Ward's book on intonation² are widely followed.

The development of the Direct Method influenced the British school considerably. Most of the books attempt to achieve

¹Daniel Jones. An Outline of English Phonetics. Seventh Edition. Cambridge: W. Heffer and Sons Ltd., 1950. An English Pronouncing Dictionary. Seventh Edition Revised. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1946. The Pronunciation of English. Third Edition, Revised. Cambridge: University Press, 1950.

²L. E. Armstrong and I. C. Ward. Handbook of English Intonation. Second Edition. Leipzig: Teubner. Cambridge: W. Heffer and Sons Ltd., 1931.

MATERIALS AND TESTS IN ENGLISH

oral control of the language even when as in Michael West's readers they begin with reading. Palmer himself wrote in the preface to his 1917 book, The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages,³ "We adopted and rejected the Direct Method several times each year." Palmer and Redman's This Language Learning Business⁴ is a clear exposition of an important point of view of the British school. The journal English Language Teaching⁵ publishes articles by the exponents of the British school.

A pattern of textbooks has evolved along with the British school. A typical book of that pattern has a series of texts in a limited vocabulary, it uses I. P. A. transcription in the early lessons, often in addition to ordinary spelling, and it contains some discussion of grammar. This kind of textbook can be seen in various countries of Europe, and in some publications in Brazil, Argentina, and Cuba. Jorin's books in Cuba, for example, were clearly of the direct method British school. In these three American countries and in the British publications themselves the entire book is usually in English. The other European textbooks are more apt to have explanations in the native language of the students. Actually, in each country separate traditions and tendencies may prevail. In some, the work of outstanding scholars may have influenced the overall kind of publication in use. In Holland for example, the work of grammarians like Kruisinga and Zandvoort has influenced most textbooks, and one notices that Dutch publications have full sections on Grammar. In Denmark, the influence of the writings of Otto Jespersen can be felt in the English textbooks appearing even now. In Norway the direct method work of Carl Knap early in the century is still evident in present-day publications. All three countries, however, use the I. P. A. alphabet extensively, and they use Daniel Jones' and Armstrong and Ward's intonation. Japan was influenced by Palmer and later by the I.R.E.T. (Institute for Research in English Teaching) founded by him and still in operation.

³Harold E. Palmer. The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages. London: George G. Harrap and Company, 1917.

⁴H. E. Palmer and H. V. Redman. This Language-Learning Business. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1932.

⁵Published by the British Council, 65 Davies Street, London.

ROBERT LADO

Basic English. Basic English is a list of 850 multipurpose words. The problem of pronunciation is not given systematic treatment, and grammar is theoretically reduced to a brief set of semiartificial rules. C. K. Ogden's little book, Basic English,⁶ is a concise presentation of the system. Basic is at present advocated as a beginning stage in English. One cannot overlook a number of things, however. It is precisely at the beginning stage that pronunciation and normal grammatical patterns should be mastered or they may never be mastered at all. Students and teachers who already know a bit of normal English have to waste time in learning to adjust to Basic. Normal speakers do not speak in Basic, and therefore comprehension remains a problem. The meaning load on two-word combinations such as "get up," "get on," "get along," "get off" is heavier than usual, and these combinations are often the most difficult ones to learn. The native language is not taken advantage of nor is it considered in the teaching emphasis.

Basic as interpreted by I. A. Richards and Christine Gibson in the United States has made considerable use of audio-visual aids. They have produced two albums of records with pauses for student repetition.⁷ Richards published his Pocket Book of Basic English now retitled English Through Pictures,⁸ which uses stick figures to illustrate the meanings of the Basic words. They also produced film strips depicting the pictures from the same book for classroom use. They have made motion pictures of the same material and have now added a gadget that rethreads the film back into the projector continuously and thus permits uninterrupted repetition of the film as many times as desired.

The linguistics movement. The linguistic approach is the third and most encouraging stream of work in our field at present. It began in 1939 at the University of Michigan under the influence of Charles C. Fries. It has continued in two main currents. Fries and his students and staff proceeded to

⁶C. K. Ogden. The System of Basic English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934.

⁷Anglophone. Cambridge, Mass.: English Language Research, Inc. Series I; Series II, 1952.

⁸I. A. Richards. English Through Pictures. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1946.

MATERIALS AND TESTS IN ENGLISH

apply structural linguistics to the description of English and its teaching to non-native speakers. Bloomfield and other linguists guided as much as possible the foreign language teaching of the A. S. T. P. (Army Specialized Training Program).

Fries' linguistic approach is highly productive in several important ways. It insists that the first problem in learning a foreign language is not that of mastering vocabulary but mastering the sound system and the grammatical structure of the new language. Once this is accomplished, vocabulary acquisition can proceed rapidly and with relatively little effort. Accordingly, the materials of the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan have full sets of exercises and full treatment of pronunciation, intonation, and grammatical structure, with vocabulary and reading less prominent at the beginning and becoming more prominent as the lessons advance. Grading of pronunciation and structure is done with the same care as others have done their vocabulary control. Furthermore, since the learners already possess a set of language habits in their native language, that language is compared with English during the preparation of the teaching materials in order to locate and teach more thoroughly those matters that differ from the native language. Through this comparison it is also possible to use more freely those structures, words, and sounds which are similar to those of the native language. The book by C. C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language⁹ is the best statement of this approach. Other significant titles are The Intonation of American English¹⁰ by Kenneth L. Pike; An Intensive Course in English for Latin-American Students¹¹ by the research staff of the English Language Institute, C. C. Fries, Director; Syllabus for English Through Practice¹² by Fries, Kitchen, and French; An Intensive Course in English for Chinese Students¹³ by Fries and

⁹Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1945.

¹⁰Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1945.

¹¹Ann Arbor, Michigan: The George Wahr Publishing Co., 1943, 1948. A 1951 edition of these materials is partly complete in mimeograph form: Pronunciation, Vols. I, II, III; Grammar, Vols. I, II; Vocabulary, Vol. I; Pattern Practice, Vol. I. The most recently lithoprinted volume is Patterns of English Sentences, nineteen lessons from An Intensive Course in English.

¹²Out of print.

¹³English Language Institute, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, 1946.

ROBERT LADO

Yao Shen. The textbooks being developed for Puerto Rico, Fries American English Series,¹⁴ with the Teacher's Guide represent a much needed application to the elementary and secondary school level. Fries' latest book, The Structure of English¹⁵ will be found of great value by teachers.

This approach has given from the beginning considerable attention to oral and auditory activities and exercises; some very significant new-type contributions are to be found in these materials. Various articles by members of this school are published in the journal Language Learning.¹⁶ Most of the articles dealing with the teaching of English as a foreign language have been reprinted in a small volume under the title, Selected Articles From Language Learning.¹⁷

The other branch of the linguistics movement produced the Spoken Language series, for the teaching of foreign languages to personnel of the Armed Forces. These materials lean more heavily on outright memorization of conversational material which must be mastered with near native perfection. Through contracts with the A. C. L. S. (American Council of Learned Societies) a number of English textbooks are now in preparation for various linguistic backgrounds. These books, like the Fries materials are based on a linguistic comparison of English with the native language of the students. They use a phonemic notation somewhat more complex than the former, and they make considerable use of the native language of the student.¹⁸

Miscellaneous teacher-made books. Enterprising teachers who gain experience through repeated teaching of English courses often, perhaps too often, write their own lessons and eventually publish them. Many of these textbook writers sim-

¹⁴Fries American English Series; for the Study of English as a Second Language. Pauline M. Rojas and staff, English Section, Department of Education, San Juan, Puerto Rico. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1952.

¹⁵C. C. Fries. The Structure of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1953.

¹⁶Published by the Research Club in Language Learning, 1522 Rackham Bldg., Ann Arbor, Michigan.

¹⁷Also published by the Research Club in Language Learning.

¹⁸American Council of Learned Societies, Committee on the Language Program, Washington, D.C. Published so far: English for Indonesians, G. E. Williams; English for Koreans, F. Lukoff; El Inglés Hablado, F. B. Agard; Spoken English as a Foreign Language; Instructor's Manual, W. E. Welmers.

MATERIALS AND TESTS IN ENGLISH

ply sit down and start writing lessons without the indispensable research that must precede such work. Their materials usually attempt to imitate current fads in presentation. If visual aids are the fad, the books sprout numerous pictures and we may even hear of an audio-visual method. If the direct method has currency, more or less direct method lessons appear. If fill-in exercises are popular, the books are filled with fill-in exercises. When, through some major research, pronunciation is talked about, there appear sections or even volumes on pronunciation. If the talk is of "idioms," idioms we get. Traditional grammar being under attack, the grammar parts fade from sight in the volumes and the language book is called a reader or something else.

Some of these books are very popular and they may be helpful as far as they go, when they do not attempt to teach nonsense. These materials are characterized by the lack of systematic research on what to teach, i.e., on the language. The content of such books often perpetuates the incomplete information, false statements and useless drills of previous books written the same way. Their use results in the wasting of time and energy by teachers and students who do not realize that an attractively bound inexpensive book may be the most expensive one in the end. And sometimes one is told in the preface of such books that the studies of linguistic scientists on pronunciation and structure are deliberately omitted because they are unnecessary and too complicated. There will always be those who write such books and apparently there will always be publishers who will print them. On the other hand, teachers who take the trouble of studying the contributions of educational research and linguistic science can produce greatly improved materials today. Our work as teachers is so intangible at our present state of knowledge, and so important, that we must stand on the highest professional responsibility to counteract the high-pressure salesmanship of quackery.

II. Tests

As to tests the picture seems less complex. In 1950 I published a "Survey of Tests in English as a Foreign Language," in the journal Language Learning. In it were de-

ROBERT LADO

scribed the tests then available. Of the tests described, only those of the English Language Institute, the Inter-American Tests, and the English Language Examination for Foreign Students of the Educational Testing Service¹⁹ may be obtained now. The English Language Institute test of greatest usefulness is the Test of Aural Comprehension.

The Educational Testing Service distributes the other two tests: the Inter-American Tests, and the English Language Examination for Foreign Students. The Inter-American Tests are a series of tests developed for Puerto Rico by Dr. H. T. Manuel and staff. The series has separate tests of general ability, reading comprehension, reading in the natural sciences, and reading in the social studies. The Educational Testing Service has discontinued the administration of its English Language Examination. The test may now be purchased outright in lots of twenty copies.

Two new developments deserve notice at this time. In 1951 I published the English Language Test for Foreign Students²⁰ to meet the need for a practical and linguistically sound test of proficiency to be administered by personnel not necessarily trained in testing. This test includes pronunciation even though it is of the paper-and-pencil type. It correlates highly (.89) with three combined tests two of which are auditory ones, and it can therefore be used alone whenever it is not practical to use in addition a test of aural comprehension.

The other development is that of the English Proficiency Certification Program of the English Language Institute in cooperation with the U. S. Information Agency. A three-hour proficiency examination has been developed for use in cultural centers in Latin America and in Greece. The examination has a large new section on pronunciation. It is completely objective and of the paper-and-pencil type. The problems tested

¹⁹Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.

²⁰R. Lado. English Language Test for Foreign Students, Ann Arbor, Michigan: George Wahr Publishing Co., 1951.

MATERIALS AND TESTS IN ENGLISH

are based on a linguistic comparison of English with the native language of the students. This examination is not for sale or distribution at present.²¹

²¹Another test has appeared recently: A. L. Davis, Diagnostic Test for Students of English as a Second Language. Washington, D.C.: Educational Services, Inc., 1953. Three-choice items testing grammar and idiomatic vocabulary.

SLANG AND TABOOS

JACK LAMBERTS
Northwestern University

There has been a proverbial fascination for persons of all ranks of foreign society in "colorful American slang." Visiting celebrities like Winston Churchill or Queen Juliana are not above experimenting with it. And every learner of American English apparently has as one of his goals a fluency in this tantalizing area.

"Slang" is, of course, a blanket expression that covers a great deal of linguistic territory. There are vocabularies of certain social groups which are often tossed into this category and, since a consideration of them borders closely on such fields as profanity and obscenity, all three are perhaps best considered as aspects of a single problem.

The most volatile slang, and for that reason the most interesting, is that employed by the relatively young--for purposes of classification, the "coke set"--the boys and girls of high school age. Much of their characteristic talk has evaporated by the time these people reach college. Doubtless a youthful experimentation with language accounts for the "bop" vocabulary presently current; it produces such curiosities as "drop dead," "real george" and the like; and it is perhaps responsible for the wholesale digestion and wholesale regurgitation of utterances, for example, like those exchanged by Space Cadets.

Now this kind of slang ages very quickly. By the time an older generation has contrived to gloss a substantial segment of it, this slang has become so to speak "icky," "square" or worse.

A second area of unconventional language comprehends what are sometimes spoken of as obscenities or "not nice" words, but are more accurately a specific type of taboo. Here the referent is one of a number of things: a sex feature of a human being, or an animal with conspicuous gender defining characteristics, or parts of the body vaguely susceptible to association with sex features. Euphemism stands at hand constantly to provide a more delicate term. Even insignificant acts and the names for them, after all, become taboo--one recalls the fate of "belch" which gave way to "burp" which is occasionally rendered less gross in turn by "bup."

SLANG AND TABOOS

There is a rather large lexicon of terms in this area and extremely subtle shadings are not only possible but required. The simple business of inquiring for a bathroom has frequently proven to be a veritable minefield for those uninitiate into the prevalent insipidities in a particular geographical area. Such synonyms as "john," "head," "toilet," "ladies' room" and the rest are not offered on a "Take One" basis. The dictionary is of no assistance to the language learner here since its interest in plumbing is mechanical, not social.

Worst of all, one may actually become too delicate and err quite as badly in the opposite direction. This is possible when a man, for instance, uses a characteristically feminine utterance. A preliminary warning ought to be given that in such matters a man should always seek a man's advice and a woman a woman's.

The third area is that of profanity, or "cuss words," or simply expletives. In the English speaking world these expressions are based largely on concepts and terms from the Christian religion. Only in imaginative literature do people say in English "by Allah!" The actual vocabulary of expletives is broad and appears on a number of levels. One may say "by God!" or he may water it down to "by gosh," "by golly" all the way to a rural "by gum." For every genuine oath in English there is a constellation of words which vary not only in supposed potency but which identify the user with embarrassing precision. The intended effect of profanity almost always resides in its suddenness and expletives which are obviously premeditated have a way of falling hopelessly flat.

The difference between learned and ordinary vocabularies is familiar to anyone who has taught English as a foreign language. This kind of contrast is not difficult to master since there is a close correlation between lexical item and social situation. Occasional blunders across the boundaries are not necessarily serious in consequence. A physician may--and probably will--say "You have a hepatic dystrophy" which he actually means "Your liver isn't working."

With other types of speech, however, the problems grow more complex. The primary distinction between formal and colloquial may disappear and be replaced by several other distinctions. Since the disasters in failing to recognize these are

JACK LAMBERTS

far more spectacular than the successes, the errors are most commonly noticed.

In the case of young peoples' slang the age of the speaker is of much significance. A friend of ours recently remarked that he felt ancient when he unexpectedly heard two teen-agers taking leave of each other with "It's been real cool meeting you." The precise width of the age limits is of no real significance; one has the impression that with the very young the boundaries are measurable within a few years, but with older people they may become relatively broad. Certain words a young person will use only to another of his own age; some he will use without reluctance to an older person, but will be amazed if he hears the adult use it in return. This is, of course, a favorite situation in various comedies about young people and their parents or teachers.

Much of this type of utterance is also distributed geographically. Los Angeles "bop" is presumably quite different from that of Detroit and both will undergo independent remodellings over the next ten years.

The vocabulary of "not nice" terms has aspects which differ again from the above. Here the terms change relatively little over the years. But the age of the user is again quite important. There are words which children will use to their parents and vice versa; others are never exchanged between persons widely separated in age. Some words are strictly male and others strictly female. Further, this vocabulary is subject to rigid social differentiations and certain words are never passed upward or downward across such social boundaries. The uninhibited language current in the armed forces is largely the result of an almost complete absence of age, occupational, sex and social distinctions.

Profanity follows, in general, pretty much the same pattern. Ordinarily one is careful not to curse before children unless he happens to belong to certain social groups. Small children are sometimes punished for failing to observe the simple social fact that in the neighbor's household profanity may be passed from parents to offspring but that in one's own household this does not occur. Children are ordinarily taught to avoid uttering certain types of imprecatory language before their elders. Again there is a social correlation and even the

SLANG AND TABOOS

mildest exclamations are immediately catalogued by the native speaker of English. The same person would be very unlikely to use all of the following: "jeeppers!" "dad-blamed," "man!" "merciful heavens." Some of these words are used only by men, some only by women; some by men in the company of other men--and so on. Finally one must take into account that his hearer may take great offense at this or that expletive on the basis of a personal religious attitude.

The language learning problem is important because the foreign language speaker has grown up in the midst of an equally complex situation in his own language. He responds automatically to the scores of terms used there just as speakers of American English respond to their own. As one learns English, one realizes that English has a different structure from his own language and that it has a different vocabulary. There is not always a precise overlap of one on the other. This is very much true with respect to the types of words we have just spoken of. In fact, there is almost never a one-to-one correspondence between a taboo or expletive of German or Spanish, much less of Persian or Japanese, and English. "Dios" may mean just about the same as "God" in a religious discussion, but as oaths they barely overlap.

The further difficulty resides in the fact that slang, taboo words and expletives are almost never essential. Ordinarily one is amply equipped when he has a few colorless terms relating to the plumbing system but beyond this point he proceeds with peril and the language teacher owes a warning to his students. If a person uses the taboos or expletives correctly, he does it solely for self-gratification. If they are precisely employed, the hearer will, of course, be unimpressed for he has probably failed to notice them.

On the other hand, the risk the language learner runs in venturing into these areas is enormous. One's chance of hitting dead center is, mathematically speaking, about zero. The penalty for missing dead center with slang is to make oneself ridiculous; with obscenity or profanity it is even worse--one is automatically considered downright vulgar. And as R. J. Menner remarked with respect to unusual preterits and participles, no amount of "correct use" can repair the damage that has been done.

JACK LAMBERTS

The lesson for the language learner regarding the use of such words can be said quite simply: "Don't!"

SIMPLE QUESTION WITH BE FOR PAMPANGO SPEAKERS

MARIA QUIZON SANTOS

To determine with some degree of accuracy the grammatical problems of a Pampango¹ speaker learning English, a comparative analysis of the structural patterns that operate in the English language, and of those used in the native language is necessary.²

This analysis deals with one of the basic formulas for questions of present-day English described by Dr. Fries³ as the simple reversal pattern, that is, a class 2 (be) \longleftrightarrow class 1 where class 2 is "tied" by number correlation to class 1. To illustrate: the statement, "He is a farmer." (class 1 \longleftrightarrow class 2 (be)) becomes by reversal, a question "Is he a farmer?" (class 2 (be) \longleftrightarrow class 1). Except for the difference in word arrangement these expressions are exactly alike. In either case the 2-4 intonation contour at the end is used. Hence, one can conclude that this type of question is signalled only by word order where class 2 (be) precedes class 1 to which it is "tied."

Comparing this structural pattern with the native language of the students, Pampango in this class, we can locate and describe the points of particular difficulty the student will find.⁴ There is a similar structure in Pampango: "Ortelano ya?" "Farmer he?" It is not signalled, however, by the same formal device. In Pampango, the question pattern and the statement pattern are identical as to words and word order in this particular structure. There is no verb "be" nor formal correlation between class 1 (farmer) and class 1 (he). If one wishes

¹Pampango, one of the eight major dialects in the Philippines, is the dialect of the natives of the province of Pampanga in Central Luzon. 621,455 people speak it, according to the census of the Philippines, 1939.

²Fries, C. C., *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, University of Michigan Press, 1945, pp. 5, 9, 37.

³Fries, C. C., *The Structure of English*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1952, Chap. VIII pp. 144-148. For a description of class 1 and class 2 words, see Chap. VII pp. 113-125.

⁴Lado, R., *Testing Control of the Structure of a Foreign Language*, Language Learning, Vol. IV pp. 17-21.

MARIA QUIZON SANTOS

to give the plural idea, he simply changes "ya" (he) to "la" (they) without changing the first class 1 "ortelano" (farmer). The question in the native language is signalled solely by rising intonation, a 3-2 pattern, whereas the statement intonation is 3-4. Hence, we summarize that, where the word order arrangement of class 2 (be) preceding class 1 to which it is "tied" signals a question in English, the rising intonation signals the question in Pampango.

Summary Chart

English Patterns	Pampango Patterns
1. <u>He is a farmer</u> . (Statement)	1. <u>Ortelano ya</u> . (Statement)
2. <u>Is he a farmer</u> ? (Question)	2. <u>Ortelano ya</u> ? (Question)

Therefore, the trouble spots for a Pampango speaker learning this particular type of question are (1) the use of the verb "be" which does not exist in the native language, (2) the word order arrangement that signals the question, (3) the correlation of class 2 "tied" to class 1, and (4) the falling or 2-4 intonation. While in English the 2-4 intonation is not a special clue for the question as it is also used for the statement, it becomes a special signal to the Pampango speaker who will find it extremely difficult to react to a question with a 2-4 intonation or to bring down his own pitch when he asks a question.

These problems will not be learned easily. Contrasting examples will be needed to make the problem clear, and graded exercises will have to be given to aid the student in establishing this English pattern as a habit.

SELECTED REFERENCES

- FRIES, C. C., The Structure of English.
FRIES, C. C., Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language.
LADO, R., Testing Structure of a Foreign Language, Language Learning, Vol. IV, nos. 1, 2.

SIMPLE QUESTION WITH BE FOR PAMPANGO SPEAKERS

FRIES and STAFF, An Intensive Course in English for Latin American Students.

A Sample Lesson

Observe the position of is.

1	2		2	1	
He	is	a teacher	Is	he	a teacher
He	is	good	Is	he	good
He	is	interesting	Is	he	interesting

1. Use is after he for statements.
2. Use is before he for questions.
3. Use the 2-4 intonation (falling) for questions.

Exercise 1. (For production of word order of statements)

Observe the examples:

doctor - He is a doctor.
good - He is good.

Continue the exercise -

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------|
| 1. a driver | 4. bright |
| 2. intelligent | 5. a farmer |
| 3. my classmate | 6. necessary |

Exercise 2. (For production of word order of statements and questions)

Observe the examples:

Pedro - Pedro is a student.
Is Pedro a student?

Continue the exercise -

- | | |
|----------------|------------|
| 1. my brother | 5. nice |
| 2. good | 6. the man |
| 3. intelligent | 7. working |
| 4. is | 8. kind |

REVIEWS

GRETTON, G. H. and WANDA. German by Yourself. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1952. viii, 271 pp.

German by Yourself, G. H. and Wanda Gretton, is a new addition to the series of self-instruction books published by Thomas Y. Crowell Company (French by Yourself, Italian by Yourself, Russian by Yourself). It is described by its authors as "a quick course in reading for adult beginners and others." As such, and within the obvious limitations imposed by that purpose, it seems to be a worthwhile and practical book. Anyone who conscientiously works his way through the material provided in this book should be able to achieve an adequate minimum reading knowledge of German.

The book is divided into two major parts, a Synopsis of Grammar (pp. 3-48) and reading selections of increasing difficulty (pp. 49-299). There are, in addition, a German-English Vocabulary (pp. 233-266) and a short section devoted to the Pronunciation of German. The book is well printed and pleasingly laid out.

The Synopsis of Grammar is extremely condensed, but nevertheless appears to contain the grammatical information necessary for a basic grasp of the language. A useful feature of the Synopsis of Grammar is a list of strong and irregular verbs, including most of those in general use. The reading selections are abundant and varied. The section entitled Aus der Geschichte der Dichtung contains some particularly interesting selections (from Goethe, Schiller, Heine, Mörike, Hauptmann, George, Rilke, and others). They are not in every case the best of each author's work, from a strictly literary point of view, but they provide a rich store of reading material for the student. Most of the selections are printed in Antiqua, which seems appropriate in view of the fact that most current German publications now use it.

The Vocabulary section at the back of the book is very brief, but is adequate to cover the reading selections therein presented. The comments on the Pronunciation of German are of a rather general nature, but since the book aims at the achievement of a reading knowledge of German through self-study, an approximately correct pronunciation is probably all that may reasonably be expected.

REVIEWS

There are a few minor criticisms one might make of the book. One is that the grammatical section contains several statements which might not be clearly understood by "adult beginners and others." For example, on page 3 we find "In oblique cases, one of the e's may be elided," and on page 9 "Some monosyllabic adjectives mutate the stem in comparison." These are somewhat technical explanations, and it should be possible to rephrase them in a way more easily understandable by those without previous language experience. Another possible objection is to the statement on page 3 that "the polite 2nd person [pronoun], Sie (singular and plural) is used for general purposes, to all people (above about 14) with whom you are not on extremely intimate terms." The singling out of the age of 14 as the dividing line (from the standpoint of age) between du and Sie is entirely arbitrary; the rule of thumb often suggested is that du is used in addressing very young children and Sie in speaking to older persons.

A third objection is to the arrangement of the strong verbs (pp. 24-27) into 10 categories; there does not seem to be any very sound reason, aside from the authors' preference, for doing so. Many authors of German grammars (Röseler, Thomas, and others) employ other systems of arrangement. Calvin Thomas, for example, divides the strong verbs into 7 ablaut cases, with strong justification. A mild objection, made on the grounds of good taste, might be raised against the inclusion among the reading selections of an excerpt from one of Hitler's speeches and of the Horst Wessel song (written in honor of one of the early martyrs of the Nazi regime). With so much first-rate reading material available in German, it hardly seems appropriate or necessary to include such mediocre selections, calling to mind Germany's recent shame.

The above criticisms are all minor points, and are not meant to detract from the general attractiveness and usability of the book. The aim of the book as stated in the Introduction, "to provide the material for the self-study of German, to make any normally intelligent adult student able to read with accuracy any German text he is likely to meet," is a reasonable one (although it may be questioned whether the limited vocabulary provided would be adequate to handle "any German text he is likely to meet"). All in all, it should be possible to at-

REVIEWS

tain a satisfactory reading knowledge through a thorough mastery of the contents of this book.

Gaylord Todd
University of Michigan

LADO, ROBERT. Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English. Ann Arbor, Michigan, English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1953. 60 pp.

Professor Robert Lado, Associate Director of the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan, has for many years been interested in the problem of testing student attainment in the study of English as a second or foreign language. This interest has recently taken the form of test preparation. In an earlier review¹ we discussed Form A 1951 of Dr. Lado's English Language Test for Foreign Students. In the present review we shall describe a somewhat different test by the same author.

The test under review shows many of the excellent characteristics we pointed out in the presentation of the earlier test. Both tests are inspired by Dr. Lado's desire to make use of the findings of linguistic science in the preparation of testing devices. The level of attainment in the use of a second language can be discovered by evaluating the learner's degree of control of the significant sounds and other structural items of the new language. His ease in mastering these structural patterns will depend on how many of these patterns are the same or reasonably similar to those of his own language. Tests must be constructed so that an adequate number of differing structure points will be present to test students of different linguistic backgrounds. In order to construct a test that will show validity for Spanish, French, and German learners as well as for Chinese, Japanese, and Malayan students of English, basic analyses of the structure of each of these languages are necessary. Part of the research done by the faculty of the English Language Institute has been the structural analysis of the languages spoken by the foreign students in the English classes. Dr. Lado has incorporated these

¹ Language Learning, Vol. IV. 3-4.

REVIEWS

investigations into his tests. Tests constructed in this manner are independent of textbooks and can, therefore, be used freely with more confidence in their validity than the ordinary test. Since norms are kept for students both on an absolute scale as well as on one based on national or linguistic backgrounds, future research on structure points of peculiar difficulty to each group can be expected.

The present test is more extensive than the 1951 test since it is designed to evaluate a student's attainment with reference to norms that indicate proficiency. If the student reaches the accepted norm he is entitled to a certificate of proficiency in English. The English Language Institute grades the examination and issues the certificate. It is planned that the examination will be administered by United States embassy or consular officials or by other responsible individuals who will be charged with its security. The examination booklets are numbered and are classed as "Confidential." Information concerning the administration of the test can be obtained from the English Language Institute, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

The test proper consists of four hundred and twenty-three items or "problems" divided into four parts: Pronunciation (181 problems); Grammatical Structure (97 problems); Vocabulary (105 problems); and Contextual Reading (40 problems). Answer sheets are available for the student and the basic test booklet can therefore be used again and again. The test requires three hours but the student, within the time limit, may work according to his abilities on any of the four parts. Instructions for using the test are found on page 3 of the booklet. Each part of the test is preceded by a page with from two to five sample problems and their correct solutions. These may be explained to the student but additional explanations by the examiner are not permitted.

An interesting innovation in the present test is the use of picture contexts for testing recognition and control of English phonemes and vocabulary. In the case of the phonemes a sample set of pictures shows: 1. a telephone; 2. a fish; and 3. a house. Above each picture is printed the English word for the object with the letters representing the phoneme omitted, in this case, the ph of telephone, the f of fish and the h of

REVIEWS

house. The student is then asked: Are the omitted sounds the same or different? He marks in an appropriate box the correct relationship, which in this problem would be 1 + 2, since the ph of telephone and the f of fish represent the same phoneme. The items that follow in the pronunciation part test the student's awareness of such important contrasts as s/z; u/ʊ, č/š, ž/š, e/ε, o/ɔ, i/ɪ, et al. Whether done by picture-context or by sentence- or word-context, the vowel and consonantal phonemes of English are the subject of one hundred and thirty-three items or somewhat more than a quarter of the test. The balance of the pronunciation part (forty-eight items) is devoted to word stress (the student indicates the strongest stress in individual words); and sentence stress and intonation (the student indicates the strongest stress in an utterance).

The Second Part of the test deals with Grammatical Structure and it is divided into three parts: Sentence Comprehension, Dialogue Comprehension, and Continuing a Conversation. All problems are of a multiple-choice type with three possibilities to choose from. The basic statement presents problems in word order, meaning, traditional grammar (tense, pronoun usage, negatives, agreement, etc.) and one or more of the three choices is the correct solution.

The Third Part of the examination concerns vocabulary. This part begins with a picture-context set of problems in which a missing word in a sentence is portrayed pictorially as well as partially spelled out as one of several possible choices given for each picture. The identification of missing words in a sentence context, without picture helps, is the second division of part II. The third section of the vocabulary part is a series of problems in opposites with a basic statement, The opposite of . . . is: followed by five choices. Opposites tested are of the following types: black/white; brother/sister; to close/to open, et al.

The last part of the test, Contextual Reading, uses a procedure familiar to most teachers. A short paragraph in English is followed by four incomplete statements. Each statement has three possible completions and the student, after reading the paragraph, is to indicate the one or more correct possibilities among the choices.

The test has already been used with marked success and

REVIEWS

over 600 certificates have been awarded. If this use continues with conscientious guarding of the test and if equally valid alternate versions matched with careful norms are provided, teachers of English as a foreign language will have a valuable instrument for testing the efficiency of their students as well as the efficacy of their own teaching.

Lawrence B. Kiddle
University of Michigan

REVIEWS

COCHRAN, ANNE, Modern Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, United Board of Christian Colleges in China, New York, New York, 1952, pp. x + 168, with bibliography.

Modern Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language by Anne Cochran is a critical report on the modern methods of teaching English to speakers of other languages especially to those of the Far East. It is also an evaluation of the various methods of teaching English as a foreign language together with detailed information on the available material that teachers should know and students can obtain. This evaluation is made after Miss Cochran has taught English in China for twenty years, done special research under Charles C. Fries, and finished a survey in England on the problem of the teaching of English to Malayan students. It also contains many helpful suggestions on the numerous possible English programs that can be set up. A glance at the list of acknowledgements proves that there are not many who know something about this special problem that the author has not consulted. Besides giving valuable information and supplying unbiased judgments, Miss Cochran has rendered the information on linguistics--the science of the study of languages--in such simple expressions that teachers who have not acquired the necessary skill in the field can understand the content, and linguists can accept it.

The main body of the book is 168 mimeographed pages divided into three parts and two appendices. The first part, Theories, has two sections: Why We Teach, and What We Teach. The second part, Methods--How to Teach, consists of four divisions: the Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Simplification Method, and the Linguistic Method. The third part, Suggestions, is made up of two sections: Helpful Books and How to Use Them, and English Teaching Programs. The first appendix is a summary of linguistic method programs, and the second appendix is the bibliography.

In the first section of the first part, Why We Teach, Miss Cochran makes two important points. The first one is that linguists were called upon to produce the ASTP material by

REVIEWS

utilizing the results they already had in their field of research. This is contrary to the mistaken information that linguists found the method of teaching foreign language from the Armed Services Training Program. That the program could be so successful is mainly due to the fact that linguists were able to give the Services what they wanted. This also constitutes the second point which Miss Cochran brings out, that is, "Efficient teaching comes from knowing the student's objective." (9)

In the second section of the first part, *What We Teach*, the author succeeds in doing the difficult task of describing a technical subject--what language is--in simple expressions for the teachers who have not had any technical linguistic training. She describes what language is, what the present day description of English is, and how it is different from the traditional concept of English grammar. At times, slight improvements could be made here and there. Two of them are: 1) Illustrations of the difference between a statement and a question in English can be used to strengthen her points on the importance of word order in English grammar by showing that in a statement the relationship is Class 1 tied to Class 2 and in a question the relationship is Class 2 tied to Class 1. (See Charles C. Fries, *the Structure of English*, p. 145). 2) "Intonation sound units in English may be called secondary phonemes, as they distinguish grammatical meaning, while the sounds which distinguish lexical meaning may be called primary phonemes." (18) "Those teaching English to Chinese should particularly note that in the Chinese language pitch is a primary phoneme, making a difference in meaning between words, whereas in English it makes a meaning difference between groups of words." (19) To carry the comparison further according to the statements given, one would assume that there is no secondary phoneme in Chinese. But this is not so. (See Y. R. Chao, *Tone and Intonation in Chinese and A Preliminary Study of English Intonation (with American Variants) and Its Chinese Equivalents*, neither of which is listed in the bibliography.) However, to be able to describe a special subject in a simple language without departures from the accepted norm certainly is not an easy task.

The second part of the book deals mainly with the four modern methods of teaching English. Being no avowed disciple

REVIEWS

of any method, Miss Cochran is able to make unbiased judgments on the advantages and disadvantages of any method. Furthermore, being a teacher of experience, her critical statements are made from a practical point of view. Of each of the four methods, Miss Cochran has the following to say. The translation method is designed primarily to teach the written language and not the spoken language. In fact, even for the use of translation, this method presents many pitfalls. (32) The direct method teaches both the spoken and the written languages. The emphasis on drills, aural understanding, and speaking is an advance over the translation method, and the oral-aural control makes the learning to read and write easier than the translation method. But in the hands of untrained teachers, "often after six years of sitting in English classes," students "know practically no English either spoken or written." (p. 46)

Concerning the simplification method, Miss Cochran concludes that it has well-prepared and simplified material suitable for all foreign speakers. The language, however, is artificial. Furthermore, such material is difficult for a non-English speaking teacher to use. At times, in order to limit the number of vocabulary items, it is necessary to teach them by circumlocution. While this simplification method provides a language that can be used by speakers of different languages, it does not take into consideration the learner's native language, and therefore it does not provide material to take care of specific problems which arise from different linguistic backgrounds.

The last method that is discussed is the linguistic method. This method advocates the teaching of a language through its physical form rather than through meaning. It emphasizes the importance of the learner's native language and this it throws a new light on the horizon. This new light is that the problems involved in the teaching of the same foreign language can be different for speakers of different native languages in pronunciation, in grammar, and in vocabulary. Through the comparison of the student's native language and the language to be learned, the teacher can take advantage of situations which can be approximated in the two languages. For example, the use of cognates in related languages can be a great help to the beginners. However, it is also necessary to look out for false

REVIEWS

cognates--a point which Miss Cochran has overlooked. The teacher can also pay special attention to the points at which the two languages differ and are therefore the places where students are most likely to make mistakes. For example, the need to emphasize inflection in English for Chinese students, because Chinese uses "very little inflection" (62) or "does not use inflection." (75) The linguistic method also emphasizes the oral approach which Miss Cochran expounds according to what C. F. Hockett has given in his chapter on "Learning Pronunciation," 1950 (70). Actually an earlier and equally adequate explanation can also be found in C. C. Fries's Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, p. 6-9, 1945. Although Miss Cochran regrets that there still is a lack of trained teachers and of well-prepared textbooks, and although it is an expensive method, because it requires experts, this linguistic method, she feels, is the best to be used in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

Part III, Suggestions, is divided into two main sections. The first section is an annotated list of selected books available in the United States and in England for teachers and students. Miss Cochran groups the information into Helpful Books and How to Use Them, and Books Supplying a Background in Theoretical Linguistics. Under the first heading, she includes books on language learning in general; books on teaching English; textbooks; special skills required in relation to pronunciation, reading, vocabulary, and tests; possible reference books, dictionaries, and audio-visual aids. Of the books listed under tests, Miss Cochran omitted an important contribution, that is, Robert Lado, Measurement in English as a Foreign Language, University Microfilms, 1951. Under the second heading, she gives a highly selected list on theoretical linguistics including the general background, modern American linguistics, semantics, etc., with special emphasis on the English language. The second main division of the third part is called English Teaching Program. It is not a list of the English teaching programs already in existence; rather it is a description of various English programs that can be set up as seen by the author through her experience in teaching and in research. Such programs are visions yet to be realized in the Far East where the present demand for English as a foreign language is especially acute.

REVIEWS

The author calls the first appendix, Summary of Linguistic Method Programs. The names of six such programs are listed with detailed descriptions and comments on each unit.

Appendix Two is a fourteen page up-to-date bibliography that covers the books and the periodicals that are essential to the understanding of the background of this particular problem, and for an adequate preparation for the profession of teaching English as a foreign language. As the author says, "English as a foreign language is a special field. The materials of which must be thoroughly understood before anyone attempts to teach. No one should expect to teach English to foreigners without reading some of the latest books on theory and method." (111) In other words, just because one can speak a language is no indication that one can teach it, and especially to foreign speakers. Two even more valuable statements that the previous one may be found in the introduction. "No one has the right to waste the student's time by trying to teach English by instinct." and "No teacher has a right to disregard these discoveries."--the scientific discoveries on language and the teaching of languages.

Yao Shen
University of Michigan

REVIEWS

THARP, JAMES B., editor. Annotated Bibliographies of Modern Language Methodology for the Years 1946, 1947, and 1948. Compiled by Richard A. Williams (1946), Elmira Nelson (1947), and Mildred Ellington (1948). College of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1952. x, 74 pp. Paper.

This welcome bibliography includes by way of introduction a four-page resume by James B. Tharp of bibliographical contributions on modern language methodology from C. H. Hand-schin's 1913 bibliography¹ to the annual bibliography which appeared in the Modern Language Journal in 1951. The bibliography itself covers a three-year gap, 1946-1948, during which the Modern Language Journal did not publish its usual annotated lists. This three-year booklet gives 185 items for 1946, 245 items for 1947, and 207 items for 1948. Included are articles, books, and pamphlets. The annotations for each year were prepared as part of M. A. theses in foreign-language education under the direction of James B. Tharp. The items are classified under twenty topical categories in keeping with the 1945 and 1949 bibliographies in the Modern Language Journal. A composite table of contents by topics and a composite list of periodicals appear at the beginning. Seventy-four periodicals are listed with the yearly number of items from each included. A composite authors' index completes the volume. The style is similar to that of the annual bibliographies of the Modern Language Journal.

Ten periodicals with the largest number of entries are the Modern Language Journal (168 entries), French Review (90), Hispania (85), German Quarterly (48), Modern Language Forum (24), Language Learning (17, first year of publication 1948), Education (12), Classical Journal (9), High Points (9), and Times Educational Supplement-London (8). Of twenty topics into which all entries are classified, the six topics with

¹In The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1913, No. 3 whole No. 510. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1913, 154 pp.

REVIEWS

the largest number of items are "Bibliography; Survey; Statistics; Reports" (86 items), "Realia; Civilization, Culture; Clubs; Socialization; Activities" (63), "Aims and Objectives" (60), "Curriculum Planning" (56), "ASTP, 'Army Method,' 'Intensive Method,' Linguist-Informant Method" (38), and "Psychology of Learning; Techniques of Instruction" (36). Least active was the topic "Lesson Planning" which shows only three entries.

The annotations are short and easy to read. No attempt at evaluation is made. Typical annotations are the following:

- 47:96. Graves, Mortimer: "Language Barrier to International Understanding," AAAPSS, CCL (Mar. '47), 12-16. Language barriers, although they do exist, may be surmounted and must be surmounted if the world communication pattern is to be improved. In order to decrease the barriers, changes must take place in language teaching. Needed changes are discussed.
- 48:43. Fries, Charles C.: "As We See It," LL, I (Jan. '48), 12-16. The ease and speed of attainment in the early stages of learning language depend primarily upon the selection and sequence of materials to be studied. The basic problems in early language study are mastery of the structure of the language and mastery of sound. Fries continued his article by dealing mainly with the problem of sound.

Annotated bibliographies are exceedingly useful tools in any field; in the field of foreign languages they are almost indispensable. The period covered by this bibliography coincides with the large post-war enrollments which brought heavy demands upon all of us. The controversy over the application of ASTP experience to civilian conditions raged at the time also. It is heartening to see the production of those three years classified and briefly described so that it may be more easily accessible. The booklet is fully adequate within the limitations of an annotated bibliography of this scope. The compilers and the editor deserve our appreciation.

The more extensive three volumes of An Analytical Bibli-

REVIEWS

ography of Modern Language Teaching compiled by Algernon Coleman and others for the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education and covering the years 1927-1942² are of course considerably more useful. The annotations in those volumes are more in the category of critical summaries or abstracts ranging in length from half of one page to about two pages each. And the fact that theses are included in addition to articles, books and pamphlets further enhances the value of those volumes. The great delay in their appearance however (the 1937-1942 volume, owing to special circumstances, was delayed until 1949) make the shorter annual bibliographies of the Modern Language Journal a very handy tool for the foreign language teacher and the graduate student.

It may be proper to suggest here that a new section appear in future work of this kind, a section on linguistic resources. Some studies of specific language problems are listed in the booklet under review, but a more systematic coverage of pure linguistic descriptions of modern languages would be a welcome and useful addition, one that would be referred to again and again by teachers and textbook writers.

Errata: "Linguish": Linguist (p. iii); "discovery": recovery (p. 33, item 77); "Yamaguva": Yamagiwa (p. 54, item 73); "wth": with (p. 63, item 58).

Robert Lado
University of Michigan

² Coleman, Algernon, with the assistance of Agnes Jacques. An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, 1927-1932. Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1933. xii, 296 pp.

Coleman, Algernon, and King, Clara B. An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, Vol. II, 1932-1937. Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1938. xviii, 561 pp.

Coleman, Algernon, King, Clara B., and Balluff, Clare; edited by Robert Herndon Fife. An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching, Vol. III, 1937-1942. King's Crown Press, Columbia University, 1949. xiii, 549 pp.

A WORD ABOUT OUR CONTRIBUTORS

KENNETH CROFT is at present an editorial assistant for the American Council of Learned Societies English for Foreigners Program in Washington, D.C. Born in Texas, Dr. Croft studied at Oklahoma, Michigan, and Indiana Universities, and received his Master's and Doctor's degrees in Linguistics and Anthropology from the latter. He taught Spanish at Yale and Michigan, did research on Nahuatl and Cheyenne for the Rockefeller Foundation and American Philosophical Society respectively, and has taught at various times at the Instituto Mexicano-Norteamericano, serving in 1950 as director of courses for that institution.

ERNEST F. HADEN is Professor of Romance Linguistics at the University of Texas. French is his major interest, particularly the French of Canada, and he has published several studies of area linguistics of the latter. Professor Haden was born in Mohkanshan, China; he received his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago, teaching there and at Arkansas, Southwestern, McMaster, and, at present, Texas.

ROBERT LADO is well known to readers of Language Learning and to all those interested in the teaching of English as a foreign language and in the testing of language achievement. For a detailed biography of Dr. Lado, see the previous volume of this journal.

J. J. LAMBERTS is at present an instructor at Northwestern University. He has completed requirements for a Ph.D. at the University of Michigan, where he was formerly an instructor. Besides studying at Michigan, Mr. Lamberts attended the University of Groningen, the Netherlands, as a Fulbright scholar.

WERNER F. LEOPOLD, Professor of German and Linguistics at Northwestern University, is universally recognized as an authority on child language: in addition to his article in this issue, Professor Leopold is the author of Speech Development of a Bi-Lingual Child and Bibliography of Child Language, two important contributions to an overly neglected field of language study, and other works in several areas of linguistics. A native of London, England, he was educated in Germany, receiving his Ph.D. from Goettingen, and has taught at Marquette, Williams, CCNY, and Southern California, as well as Northwestern.

BELEN G. MACHUCA is a graduate of the University of Puerto Rico and Teachers College (M.A.). Mrs. Machuca has taught English in Puerto Rico for twenty years, from elementary to college levels, and is now Supervisor and Member of the English Section of the Department of Education in her native commonwealth. She has collaborated in the writing of A Manual for the Teaching of American English and the books of the Fries American English Series.

A WORD ABOUT OUR CONTRIBUTORS

PATRICIA O'CONNOR teaches Spanish at the University of Texas and has been an ACLS scholar in linguistics at Michigan and Indiana the past two years.

ROBERT L. POLITZER is Co-ordinator of Language Instruction in the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures of Harvard University. Professor Politzer was born in Vienna and educated in the United States, acquiring his A.M. at Washington University, a Ph.D. at Columbia, and a D.S.Sc. at the New School. He began his teaching career as a Lecturer in French at Columbia and has since taught at the University of Washington and Harvard.

MARIA QUIZON SANTOS is a native of San Fernando, Pampango, in the Philippines. She received her B.S.E. from the University of the Philippines, and, last year, an A.M. from the University of Michigan.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

This list constitutes acknowledgement for all publications received by Language Learning and not previously acknowledged. As space permits, reviews will be printed of those publications which make special contributions to the application of the principles and results of scientific language study to the practical problems of teaching and learning languages.

Aristotle, Meteorologica, Trans. by H. D. P. Lee. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1952.

Boletín del Instituto Caro y Cuervo, Año 6, Nos. 2, 3, 1950. Bogotá, Colombia.

Boletín del Instituto Marco Fidel Suárez, Año I, Nos. 1, 2, 1951. Universidad de Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia.

D. C. Browning, Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases, (rev. from Peter Roget). E. P. Dutton and Co., 1952.

Diccionarios de construcción y régimen de la lengua castellana. Bogotá: Instituto Caro y Cuervo, 1952.

Dio Chrysostom V, Discourses LXI-LXXX, Trans. by H. Lamar Crosby. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1952.

Diodorus Siculus VII, Bks. XV.20 - XVI.65, Trans. by Charles L. Sherman. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1952.

Gretton, G. H. and Wanda, German by Yourself. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1952.

Gymnasium, Annus II, Fasc. VI - Annus III, Fasc. X, 1951-2. Bosa, Cuncinamarca, Colombia.

Hernández, Eusebio and Restrepo, Felix, Llave del Griego, Colección de Trozos Clasicos, (4th ed.). Mexico, D.F.: Buena Prensa, 1952.

Jiménez de Quesada, Gonzalo, El Antijovio, Publicaciones del Instituto Caro y Cuervo, Bogotá, Colombia, 1952.

Language Teaching in the Philippines, a report by Clifford H. Prator, jr., United States Educational Foundation in the Philippines, 1950.

Leopold, Werner F., Bibliography of Child Language. Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1952.

Levende Talen, numbers 160-8, June 1951 - February 1953. Utrecht, The Netherlands.

Livy XIII, Bks. XLIII - XLV, Trans. by Alfred C. Schlesinger. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951.

McCarthy, James P., Shady Hill Latin Lessons. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1952.

_____, Shady Hill Latin Lessons, Teacher's Guide. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1952.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Memoria del Primer Congreso de Academias de la Lengua Española, 1951. Comisión Permanente del Congreso de Academias de la Lengua Española. Mexico, D.F., 1952.

The MST English Quarterly (Organ of the Teachers of English, Manila Public Secondary Schools), Vol. I, No. 3 - Vol. II, No. 4, 1951-2. Manila.

Pindar, Carmina cum Fragmentis, editit Alexander Turyn. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1952.

Pliny, Natural History, Vol. IX, Bks. XXXIII - XXXV, Trans. by H. Rackham. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1952.

Por la Cultura. Bogotá, 1952.

Tharpe, James B., Annotated Bibliographies of Modern-Language Methodology for the Years 1946, 1947, and 1948. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1952. (reviewed in this issue)

Thesaurus, Boletín del Instituto Caro y Cuervo, Tomo VII. Bogotá, 1951.

Weekley, Ernest, Concise Etymological Dictionary of Modern English (new rev. ed.). New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1952.

Woodford, Archer, Obras de Juan de Cueto y Mena. Bogotá, 1952.



